

The Historical Outlook

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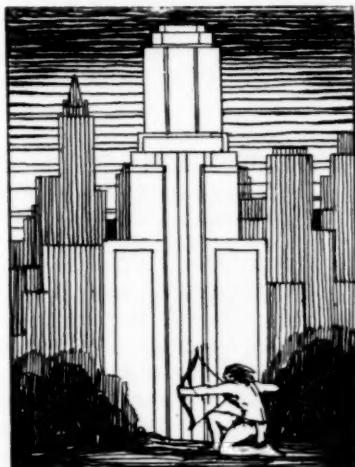
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Literary Patriots of the Gilded Age

BY MERLE EUGENE CURTI, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, SMITH COLLEGE.

It has often been pointed out that the literary expression of America after the Civil War was characterized by the diffusion of interest which created a new school of "local color, by the triumph of realism over romanticism, and by the increasing vogue of the "problem novel" with its sociological bearing. One might also point out that the pre-War emphasis placed on characteristics claimed to be distinctively American was shaded and softened or even reversed and satirized. One might further point to the evidences of unmistakable pessimism in regard to the success of the American experiment. Partly caused, no doubt, by the sordidness of the Reconstruction era, this pessimism had its roots in the apparent failure of democracy to adapt itself to the great social and economic changes which were taking place, and marked the beginning of an important new tendency in American thought.

In the sphere of ideas and emotions the transcendent faith and buoyant optimism of Americans regarding the success of their own peculiar experiment had perhaps more than anything else isolated them from the rest of the thinking world. Now, however, men like E. L. Godkin, Charles Eliot Norton, and Henry Adams were breaking down this sort of isolation, at least among those coming under their influence. Godkin realized that the complex network of international finance had created complex international problems. Contenting himself with the task of stimulating a corresponding complex and acute intellectual equipment for their solution, Godkin's constant use of the question mark must have punctured the complacent satisfaction with which many Americans had continued to consider their presumably unique and democratic institutions.

So deep-rooted, however, was the American fondness for considering American problems in terms of American peculiarities that even Godkin was affected by it. Thus he condemned the protective tariff more than once because it was based on "European motives and European methods." What a shock this must have been to that numerous group who insisted that the tariff was a peculiar American institution, fitting the needs of America as a glove! In other words, Godkin's criticism of America's peculiar democratic experiment and the American tariff did not cut straight through the idea of isolation and uniqueness. It but tore the edges of it, so to speak, for by inheritance there was in the fabric that tough strand which habitually considered everything in terms of an assumed unique superiority and resisted the shears of criticism. Now in order to understand the national

psychology of our own day, one must remember the force of this American tradition; one must not forget that the very forces breaking down the idea of isolation, such as Godkin's criticism of our claims to unique superiority, did not and could not work in a clear and unequivocal fashion.

America's peculiar democratic institutions seemed to be flowering with especial luxuriance in the jingoism and self-righteousness displayed by James G. Blaine and Richard Olney. The increasing national indifference to "moral principle" was criticized by Charles Eliot Norton in a manner similar to Godkin's, and with much the same effects. Norton believed that America's conviction of the differentiating superiority of her Democracy was to be attacked as the root of the prevalent political, social, and economic ills which nearly every thinking person was recognizing. Unquestionably there was a critical spirit in the air, which quite unconsciously, perhaps, was stimulating a new sort of cosmopolitan thinking and interest. Americans were being compelled against their own wills to think in terms less provincial than before. Their new problems were not so much the result of the failure of democracy, as Norton supposed, as they were world problems which grew out of the industrial revolution.

In other than critical literature there were also indications that America was out-growing her earlier, almost exclusive concern with domestic themes. For instance, the interest in the Venezuelan boundary controversy was reflected in the popularity of Richard Harding Davis's journalistic stories of Central and South America. Widely read, too, were the novels of F. Marion Crawford, whose creed that human beings everywhere were much the same and would be judged equally intelligent if correctly observed, sprang, perhaps, from his cosmopolitan training. Asia furnished the themes for *Zoroaster* (1885), *Khaled* (1891), and *Via Crucis* (1898); *Paul Patoff* (1887) was a story of Constantinople; Germany was the background for *The Witch of Prague* (1891), *Dr. Claudius* (1883), *Greifenstein* (1889), and *A Cigarette-maker's Romance* (1890); England came into *Fair Margaret* and *A Tale of a Lonely Parish* (1886), while America was the theme of five novels. Most important of all were the Italian novels. This prolific writer seemed to have made every niche and corner of the world quite as much his own as his native country was, or more. No preceding American novelist had been able to do this, though Hawthorne, within a narrow scope, had tried. Then there were the extravagant novels of General Lew Wallace, *The*

Fair God (1873), with its Mexican background, and *The Prince of India, or Why Constantinople Fell* (1893), written while he was ambassador to Turkey. The favorite book of S. Weir Mitchell, *The Adventures of Francois, Foundling, Thief, and Fencing-Master During the French Revolution* (1898) vibrated with sympathy for the French aristocracy, just as his cycle of Washington stories painted in even more glowing terms the aristocratic Federalists. A similar treatment of such themes would have been unusual, if not impossible, in the period of our earlier and robust American self-consciousness and buoyant democracy.

Among the poets, too, there was an increasing interest in foreign themes. Cincinnatus Heine Miller could sing of Italy and of the Russian Jew as well as of the Sierras. Nor was his virile Western Americanism sufficient to keep him from decrying the Monroe Doctrine as a "train of glittering generalities," and from insisting that we could not justly keep any nation from building a canal at Panama. Yet with this cosmopolitanism went the refrain of the older American tradition of special national virtues. In *Columbus* he puts it this way:

"He gained a world; he gave that world
Its grandest lesson: 'On! Sail on!'"

In *Our Heroes of Today* he pictured America:

"With high face held to her ultimate star,
With swift feet set to her mountains of gold,
This new-built world, where the wonders are.
She has built new ways from the ways of the Old,
And away forever with the trade of war."

The South, too, traditionally the most isolated part of the country, spoke in accents not devoid of cosmopolitan and humanitarian interest. Paul Hamilton Hayne, aroused by the persecutions of the Jews in Russia, poured forth his urgent appeals to America and to the civilized world:

"Wake, England, your thunders! America fling
To the wind the shrewd state-crafts that hamper or mar!
Blind your voices of wrath! your deep warnings out-ring,
To smite the dulled ears, and blind soul of the king
Who rules, Heaven help them! those realms of the Czar."

In more than one way the Civil War registered its effects on Sydney Lanier. The internationalism which it engendered in him has not, I believe, been adequately pointed out. His experiences convinced him of the paramount need for international peace. Indeed, to Lanier polities were at variance with the spirit of the age "until an international court of some sort is established." Some small but cheerful signs made him feel as early as 1867 that such an institution would develop and lead to the death of war.

Another poet, Robert Underwood Johnson, evidenced a similar interest in international topics, and his *Apostrophe to Greece* (1886), his *Italian Rhapsody*, and his *Paraphrases from the Servian of Zmaj Iovan Iovanich* pulse with a sympathy warmer and more intimate than that shown in earlier American treatment of foreign themes. Black Sunday, the Czarist massacre inaugurating the Russian Revolution of 1905, inspired a significant poem of interna-

tionalism, and his *Hands Across the Sea* (1897) emphasized the fundamental similarity of English and American liberty—an admission unheard of in the earlier part of the century.

Considering these tendencies, then, the well-known cosmopolitanism of Lafcadio Hearn does not appear as an isolated phenomenon. His lectures on literature at the University of Tokyo were the first ambitious attempt to interpret the West to the East, just as his books on Japan were the first real efforts to introduce Americans to the exotic flavor of that fascinating empire. Hearn believed that the barriers between East and West, the barriers of racial feeling, of emotional differentiation, language, manners, belief, were likely to remain insurmountable for centuries. Nevertheless, he imagined a rapprochement of East and West, producing a unique religion which should combine synthetic science with the philosophy of Buddha. This religion, with its emphasis on the annihilation of the ego, personal and national, through a sort of sublimation, seemed to him best calculated to meet the future problems of the race. Hearn deplored the westernization of the East through capitalism and industry, from which he himself had attempted to "escape" since the days of his refuge among the Creoles of New Orleans and the West Indies. A figure that bewilders and fascinates, Lafcadio Hearn is one more indication of a consciousness that industrialization was bringing America close to Europe. America was no longer sufficiently unique to give that maladjusted decadent a certain exotic compensation for the dullness he felt in life.

Ambrose Bierce was another who condemned with never-ceasing insinuation and chilling irony the whole category of ideals and traditions which America had clung to for the greater part of its existence. To him the American "idolatry of liberties" was only another name for utilitarian opportunity, with nothing of the sanctity which Americans had read into it. America, not Europe, was in decay, and foolhardy indeed were the anarchists who left "the wise anarchies" of Europe for our disintegrating climes. Indeed, the immigration of the "oppressed" from all nations, something which every generation of American men of letters had considered with high pride, appeared to Ambrose Bierce the curse which had made us the most lawless of peoples on the face of the earth. On the other hand, Bierce never tired of satirizing the protective tariff, with its obvious bias and rigid exclusiveness. With incisive bitterness he inveighed against our growing imperialism, cloaked with hypocritically idealistic aims.

None of that majority of American men of letters who condemned the Spanish-American war and the ensuing imperialism (not even Mr. William Dean Howells!) penetrated more deeply into the substance of some of the prevalent shams than did this man Ambrose Bierce. Certainly some of his lines must have made some Americans cringe, such, for instance, as

"We're false to trust and quick to spy
The fissure in a friendly armor."

Even freedom can no more rely
 Upon our promise not to harm her.
 O guardian of the continents,
 My country, shall that evil dower,
 The passion for pre-eminence
 Cry from thy sea-ward battlements
 A soul already drunk with power?"

We went to war presumably, he reminded his countrymen, for the relief of an oppressed people, yet at the close of it we found ourselves in possession of vast and rich insular dependencies and with a pretty tight grasp on Cuba. "We could scarcely have profited more if territorial aggrandizement had been the spirit of our purpose." It was time to cease our hypocritical cant, "rise from our dreams of peace and the love of it, confess ourselves the war-like people that we were, and become the military people that we were not." *In Two Administrations*, Bierce satirized the peace settlement, the "big stick," and the relation of imperialism to "the interests."

Similarly William Vaughn Moody raised his voice in *An Ode in Time of Hesitation* (1900) with an insight which was prophetic of the strictures of contemporary radicals:

"Tempt not our weakness, our cupidity!
 For save we let the island men go free,
 Those baffled and dislaureled ghosts
 Will curse us from the lamentable coasts,
 Where walk the frustrate dead."

Let us not, he urged, turn the new world victories into gain. Most effective of all, perhaps, was his *On a Soldier Fallen in the Philippines*, with its haunting suggestion:

"The evil days draw near
 When the nation, robed in gloom,
 With its faithless past shall strive."

In other words, to Moody, as to Norton, this new imperialism seemed a betrayal of America's former ideal of aloofness from nationalistic expansion for sordid gain and grasping chauvinism. William James shared this view. He could pray for the victory of Bryan, in spite of his position on free silver, for the issue of imperialism seemed to him a crisis "sure to determine the whole moral development of our policy in a good or bad way for an indefinite future time." Likewise, Charles Eliot Norton wrote to Leslie Stephen that "America has rejected her old ideals, turned her back on her past, and has chosen the paths of barbarism" and "bastard imperialism."

The vehement opposition of Robert Underwood Johnson rivalled that of Bierce and Norton and William James. His poem, *The Listening Sword*, had during the crucial period before the declaration of war urged patience, and *The Welcome of Our Tears* lamented the losses in suffering and men for a questionable cause. The emotion of such a poem as *The White Man's Burden* was like a tall taper seen even against the most burning red of the new and bloody dawn:

"What though our vaunt of freedom
 Must evermore be mute,
 And the trading of men's vices
 Drag both below the brute?
 Go bribe new ships to bring it—
 The White Man's burden—loot!"

Yet Robert Underwood Johnson did not see that in this very war there was, as it were, also an initiation into an increasing activity in world affairs, an activity which no man of letters championed more vigorously than he during and after the World War.

Others, of course, looked at the Spanish-American war with the fervor of traditional American patriotism. One cannot doubt the sincerity of such men as Professor Woodberry, who saw in the war merely an extension of the area of freedom:

"Be jubilant, free Cuba, our feet are on thy soil."

But Professor Woodberry did not see that this "western warden of the islands of the sea" was soon to find itself unwelcome, and that many of its acts were not to be above suspicion. One cannot, however, condemn the idealism, though one may think it misplaced, of such a poem as *My Country*, with its lines:

"O throned freedom, unto thee is brought
 Empire; nor falsehood nor blood-payment asked;
 Who never through deceit thy ends has sought,
 Nor toiling millions for ambitions asked."

S. Weir Mitchell, too, was in the ranks of the defenders of the war, and his *Ode on Battles* was full of moral idealism:

"And lo! this matchless prize
 Great kingdoms craved with eager eyes;
 Was ours blood-bought.
 With no base after-thought
 We left unransomed and complete
 Earth's richest jewel at fair Freedom's feet."

These sentiments can be better appreciated if one remembers that at least since 1870, when Stedman printed his poem *Cuba*, sympathy with the island had been constantly stimulated, and that the United States had at last fulfilled the duty charged in his stirring lines:

"Speak at last! Speak at last,

 Speak out at last to the treacherous spoiler!
 Say, 'Will ye harry her in our sight?
 Ye shall not trample her down, nor soil her!
 Loose her bonds!'

Whatever their sentiments, the literary patriots of the Gilded Age realized that what was happening was an earnest of America's closer participation in outlying interests. Their reactions, however, represent two distinct streams of thought. The first, which uncompromisingly opposed the new imperialism, may be called isolationism. To Moody, Norton, William James, and Robert Underwood Johnson, it seemed that America was repudiating her idealistic aloofness from grasping and arrogant imperialism; that she was incorporating herself in the guild of European spoilers and was trying even to outvie them. But if their resentment towards a policy which seemed to them to sacrifice distinctive Americanism tended to fortify the tradition of our unique isolation, it also at the same time weakened it. By insisting that America was now become as iniquitous as Europe they helped to undermine the conviction of America's superiority. Europe and America at last bedfellows with the same chauvinism, imperialism, commercialism! Thus this first stream of isolation-

ism possessed two currents which crossed each other. In repudiating imperialism, because it sacrificed America's superior aloofness and put her alongside of Europe, this idealistic isolationism of Moody and James tended to defeat its purpose, in that it discouraged belief in the desirability of America's moral leadership of the world. Ambrose Bierce's attacks on the tradition of a distinctively superior America were contributing to the same result.

The second stream of thought and feeling which intermingled with the first may be called non-isolationism. To its exponents, such as Woodberry, it seemed that at last America was fulfilling her mission to extend freedom. Long enough had she kept it honeycombed in its proper home-hives. Now America was spreading her freedom beyond the seas. But the striking point is that imperialism was being justified by relating it to the tradition of a unique American mission to extend our peculiar ideals and institutions. Thus this second stream of thought, like the first, had its cross-currents, too. One current flowed in the direction of the non-isolationist policy, the other toward the tradition of national uniqueness. America, in prospecting for new fields wherein to plant her superior institutions, was made aware that her institutions were superior.

The plain fact was that both streams of thought, the isolationist and the non-isolationist, were contributing to the same result. That result was confusion and conflict between the tradition of distinctiveness, superiority, and aloofness, on the one hand, and an international-cosmopolitan mood, on the other. When America became a world-power, the American mind could not at once overthrow its older habits. It tried to adjust them to the new situation. Conflicting currents of thought and feeling were carrying on a tradition of national uniqueness and men were coming to different conclusions as to the path that had been taken. It was a strange welter, and it was clear, as Richard Watson Gilder wrote to Grover Cleveland, that "our troubles will be but fairly beginning." Nor was the paradox solved in the succeeding years, as the faltering and hesitating of America at the end of the World War proves. The tradition of distinctiveness in institutions and ideals still confused the national temper and hindered recognition of the fact, which our behavior suggested, that we had become a world power. However manipulated, however modified, however criticized by the Godkins and Nortons and Bierces and the Robert Underwood Johnsons, the tradition of uniqueness remained and refused to fit easily into new grooves.

The Origin of Our Doctrine of Judicial Review

BY NATHAN G. GOODMAN, PH.D.

The United States focuses the attention of other countries upon itself by reason of the new, the original, the democratic in the operation of its government. The foreigner often looks upon a governmental function as unique, but seldom does it happen that that function can boast ancestry in the Privy Council under Henry VIII and a worthy descent through the British colonial system down to our Supreme Court. The power of the Supreme Court to nullify acts of the legislature has called forth the wonderment of political thinkers in other countries. "No feature in the government of the United States has awakened so much curiosity in the European mind," is the remark of Lord Bryce, the premier foreign commentator on the American form of government.

In England the right of appeal to the Crown in judicial proceedings was an established principle of English constitutional law. This right of appeal was generally obtained through the Privy Council when it was at the height of its power during the sixteenth century. As a Court of Review for the British colonies, the Privy Council first began to function in connection with the direction of affairs in the island of Jersey, in the reign of Henry VIII. Thereafter the Privy Council in England became the final court of appeal from the colonial courts.

Since colonial affairs came under the jurisdiction of the Privy Council, the American colonies found themselves in frequent contact with the Council. In

the eighteenth century an interesting appeal was taken to the Council from Connecticut, involving a question of land inheritance—Winthrop vs. Lechemere. In 1725, after an appeal from the Assembly of Connecticut, the Superior Court had made its decision that "real estate should be inventoried and distributed like personal property as required by the colonial statute." The Privy Council, on appeal, reversed this decision and the colonial statute, allowing a division of real estate, was held void, as contrary to the Charter and to English law. In this case a legislative act of a colony was held "unconstitutional" by the Privy Council in England.

It was this practice of appealing from the colonial courts to the Privy Council which accustomed the colonists to look to a supreme tribunal for the final judgment in legal cases and to look to such a court for the last interpretation of the law. From their colonial experience it was natural, therefore, that the colonists erected a court with functions similar to those of the Privy Council. Professor Thayer aptly comments: "It was only a usual, orderly, necessary procedure when our own courts enforced the same rights that were enforced here by the appellate courts in England."

The colonial experience, for better or for worse, was not endured in vain. By 1787 the idea of controlling the legislature through the judiciary had been asserted in New Jersey, Virginia, New York, Mas-

sachusetts, and North Carolina. In point of time the New Jersey case takes precedence. Indeed, the question of constitutionality was brought squarely before the New Jersey Court and was squarely decided in *Holmes vs. Walton*. In 1778, when the British were in possession of Long Island, the legislature of New Jersey passed an act, October 8, 1778, to prevent the increasing evil of trading with the enemy. The persons in possession of such goods were to be brought before the justice of peace of the county, and if the plaintiff should win the suit the proceeds from the sale of the goods were to be divided among the persons seizing them. A jury of six men, not twelve, was provided for, and from their verdict no appeal was to be allowed.

Guided by this act of the legislature, Elisha Walton, major of militia, seized a quantity of goods in the possession of John Holmes and Solomon Ketcham, who were charged with the crime of bringing goods from within the lines of the British. The goods included some eight hundred yards of silk and many other articles. On May 24, 1779, the Justice of the Peace for Monmouth County, John Anderson, tried the case with a jury of six men, and a verdict was given in favor of Walton. While the suit was pending, the defendants had already applied to the Supreme Court then sitting at Burlington, and Chief Justice Robert Morris issued a writ to Anderson, returnable at the next session of the Superior Court, which opened at Hillsborough on September 7th, with David Bearly as Chief Justice.

When the case came up in the November term it was argued that "by the Laws of the Land" the jury should have consisted of twelve, not six, men. After much delay judgment was given on September 7, 1780. Among other things the argument showed that the New Jersey Constitution of 1776 stated in Article XXII "that the common law of England shall remain in force,...until they shall be altered by a future law of the legislature....and the inestimable right of trial by jury shall remain confirmed as a part of the law of this colony, without repeal forever." The West Jersey "Concessions and Agreements" of 1676 provided for the "judgment of 12 honest men." A declaration of "Rights and Privileges" of the House of Representatives of East Jersey, March 13, 1699, had the same provision. In consideration of these provisions Justice Bearly gave a judgment for the defendants, reversing the lower court. One writer believes that this decision "announced the principle of judicial guardianship of the organic law against attempted or inadvertent encroachment by the ordinary law."

Many petitions concerning Justice Bearly's decision flooded the New Jersey Assembly, which ratified the Court's action by passing an act providing for trial by a jury of twelve men. The influence of this decision is further directly seen in the judicial clauses written by Patterson and others in the New Jersey Plan of the Federal Constitution. In 1785, when Gouverneur Morris was attempting to dissuade the Pennsylvania legislature from passing a law to

repeal the charter of the Bank of North America, he referred to the New Jersey case: "Surely no good citizen can wish to see this point decided in the tribunals of Pennsylvania."

With colonial precedent and State practice recorded in favor of judicial review of legislative acts, it was to be expected that the question of this power should, in some form, come before the Constitutional Convention in 1787. Madison was quite interested in the question of veto and favored Congressional veto. He wrote Washington on April 16, 1787, that "a negative in all cases whatsoever on the legislative acts of the States appears to me to be absolutely necessary, and to be the least possible encroachment on the State jurisdictions." In its proper time, the question of veto occupied the attention of the assembled Convention. From May 31st to July 17th that section of the Virginia plan was discussed, which would have given Congress the power to nullify "all laws passed by the several States, contravening, in the opinion of the national legislature, the Articles of Union, or any treaties subsisting under the authority of the Union." This suggestion, however, was finally defeated, and Gouverneur Morris suggested that a law which should be negatived "will be set aside in the judiciary department, and, if that security should fail, may be repealed by a national law." Madison objected that the judiciary was too dependent on the legislature and too slow in its operations. Luther Martin, moreover, considered Congressional veto of State laws improper and inadmissible, and he inquired whether all the laws of the States were to be sent up to the Federal Congress before they were to be put into operation.

Another plan called for a Council of Revision to be composed of the Executive and a convenient number of the members of the national judiciary, to review State laws. Charles Pinckney, in the same debate, moved to give Congress the power to "negative all laws passed by the several States, interfering, in the opinion of the legislature, with the general interests and harmony of the Union, provided that two-thirds of the members of each house assent to the same." But it was Randolph of Virginia who fore saw the later power of the courts, for he proposed that "All laws of a particular State repugnant hereto shall be void, and in the decision thereon, which shall be vested in the Supreme judiciary...."

There was not, however, sufficient support in the Convention for the plans already mentioned, and on June 15th Luther Martin introduced a suggestion similar to part of the New Jersey Plan. After minor changes this plan was accepted in this form:

"This Constitution and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding."

Around this clause various interpretations have grown. Brinton Coxe holds that the judiciary is ex-

pressly granted power to nullify unconstitutional legislation. Others believe that the plan to give the Supreme Court the express right to nullify legislative acts was actually proposed in the Convention, but defeated, and at no time commanding more than three votes.

On the contrary, Professor Beard shows that "no proposition to confer directly upon the judiciary the power of passing upon the constitutionality of acts of Congress was submitted to the Convention." He points out, moreover, that of the twenty-five leading men in the Convention, seventeen declared for judicial control. Alexander Hamilton believed that the power was implied and he took such power for granted. He comments in *The Federalist* that "No legislative act contrary to the Constitution can be valid. A constitution is in fact, and must be regarded by the judges, as a fundamental law. It therefore belongs to them to ascertain its meaning, as well as the meaning of any particular act proceeding from the legislative body." Professor Corwin believes that "judicial review rested by the framers of the Constitution upon certain general principles which in their estimation made specific provision for it unnecessary, in the same way as, for example, certain other general principles made unnecessary specific provision for the President's power of removal." Indeed, the Judiciary Act of 1789 provided for a review in the Supreme Court of cases where there was a question of the validity of a State statute as opposed to the Constitution.

The doctrine of judicial nullification was not universally assented to, although the courts of the nation began by resting their jurisdiction "upon the very simple ground that the legislature had only a delegated and limited authority under the Constitution; that these restraints, in order to be operative, must be regarded as so much law; and, as being law, that they must be interpreted and applied by the court." In the "System of Laws of Connecticut," published by Swift in 1795, the author argues at length "against the power of the judiciary to disregard a legislative enactment while mentioning that the contrary opinion is 'very popular and prevalent.'" As late as 1807 and 1808 judges were impeached by the Legislature of Ohio for holding acts of that body void. Indeed, as late as 1825 Mr. Justice Gibson denied the whole power of the courts to declare laws unconstitutional. (*Lakin vs. Raub*, 12 S. & R., 330.) But in 1795 Justice Patterson, when on circuit, held the Pennsylvania "quieting and confirming act" unconstitutional and void, and commented that "the Constitution is the basis of legislative authority." (*Van Horn vs. Dorrance*, 2 Dallas, Pa.; 304.) Yet in 1800 Justice Chase was in doubt whether the Supreme Court could declare an act of Congress invalid. (*Cooper vs. Telfair*, 4 Dallas, 194.) When the question arose in *Marbury vs. Madison* it was still, therefore, an open one.

This case was brought up in the closing months of John Adams' presidential administration after the Senate had confirmed Marbury's appointment to a judicial office. His commission was made out, signed,

and sealed, but it had not been transmitted to him before Jefferson entered office. Jefferson's Secretary of State, Madison, refused to deliver the commission to Marbury, who claimed that his title to the office was complete, and he made application to the Supreme Court under a provision of the Judiciary Act for a writ of mandamus commanding the Secretary of State to deliver the commission.

The Court's opinion, delivered by Chief Justice Marshall, was that the thirteenth section of the Judiciary Act, "purporting to give the Supreme Court jurisdiction" in original proceedings, was not warranted by the Constitution and therefore the application must be refused. Marshall commented that "it is emphatically the province and duty of the judicial department to say what the law is. Those who aptly apply the rule to particular cases must of necessity expound and interpret the rule. If two laws conflict with each other, the courts must decide on the operation of each....This is the very essence of the judicial duty."

In the court's opinion no text of the Constitution is cited or named. The final decision is reached only by inference. Marshall's reasoning was based exclusively upon implication, and as Professor R. L. Schuyler points out, his opinion was little more than a restatement of Hamilton's argument in Number 78 of *The Federalist*, which we have mentioned.

Marbury vs. Madison established a precedent, although the court did not again exercise its power of legislative nullification until the *Dred Scott* case in 1857. Since the Civil War, however, this power of the Court has been frequently used, and it will probably be used for a long time to come. The wheels of legislative and social reform turn slowly. After the initial movements in favor of women's suffrage, the income tax, popular election of senators, many years elapsed before they became accomplished facts. Many years will elapse before the power of legislative nullification passes from the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. It is pertinent to inquire whether agitation will ever be sufficiently widespread and strong to bring about a change.

"After a careful survey of the European scene I have deliberately come to the conclusion that we are slipping back to the old diplomacy....particularly dangerous because it is camouflaged. While the diplomatists are asserting that their policy is based upon the League of Nations, they are busily engaged in making combinations which are totally opposed to the whole conception of the League....The old diplomacy consisted in reconstructing in Europe a system of rival groupings....various countries cultivated special friendships which always implied special enmities....Sometimes a Macchiavellian country managed to obtain footing in both camps....To this conception of diplomacy, those who constructed the League of Nations opposed another conception. The League should be the inspirer, director, and center of international friendships" says Sisley Huddleston in the March *Harper's* writing on "Back to the Old Diplomacy."

What Does the New-Type Examination Measure in History?

BY PROFESSOR A. C. KREY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

A recent survey showed that the new-type or so-called objective type of examination was in extensive use throughout the University of Minnesota and that a number of departments had been using this type of test for four or more years. It was felt, therefore, that something might be gained from a meeting in which representatives of various groups might report the results of their experience. Such a meeting was accordingly arranged in the College Problems Course.¹ Following this general session, a special meeting was held by the history faculty. At this meeting, the peculiar experience of the department was considered more fully, with help from D. G. Paterson, of the Department of Psychology. The following paper arose out of these discussions.

Teachers of history should have no prejudice against the use of the objective type of examination. They have for generations made use of the "omnibus" question whose purpose was to make a dragnet sampling of as wide a range of factual information as possible. They have, likewise, for generations used the rapid-fire drill both orally and in writing. This was certainly a form of the "completion" question so much in vogue at the present time. They have even made use of the critical exercise, which has much in common with some forms of the true-false recognition questions of the modern objective test. Perhaps psychologists would be unwilling to recognize any great degree of relationship between their recent achievement and these old habits of the teachers of history. It is equally possible that some teachers of history view as something quite foreign to them this highly developed form of test which psychologists urge so strenuously as the corrective of many academic ills. In our own case, it was probably the obvious convenience and promise of relief held out to instructors of large classes rather than any conviction of the pedagogical soundness of this test which led to its acceptance by various members of our staff.

The widespread printed discussion of the intelligence tests applied in the army supplemented by the oral reports of our own colleagues in psychology who had participated in that experiment aroused our interest. The pioneer work of E. L. Thorndike was already known to some of us. The matter was brought more directly home to all of us by the appearance of Ben D. Wood's *Measurement in Higher Education*. A series of conferences sponsored by the local University administrators contributed further to our education. For direct practical assistance, we owe much also to the little handbook of D. G. Paterson² and a similar work by G. M. Ruch.³ We also obtained valuable suggestions from printed examples of such tests in our field, notably some of the tests used in the course in Contemporary Civilization at Columbia University and the Background Test in Social

Studies used at Harvard University. With all this assistance, we have made some improvement over the earlier tests with which we started. We have made important modifications nearly every year since that time, and what follows, therefore, is in a sense a report of progress.

In the course of our experience, we have tried many types of questions used in such tests. These include various forms of the recognition question, the true-false, the single choice, sometimes called multiple-choice, matching questions and analogy. They also include various forms of the completion question, rearrangement of items and paragraph comprehension items. Our experience has led us to the following tentative conclusions regarding each of them.

We began by using the true-false questions in their simple form; that is, a series of statements which could be marked by symbols indicating that they were right or wrong. We have had to abandon this type of question, however, because we found that very few important matters in history lent themselves to such simple unequivocal treatment. We also felt that it placed too great a premium on mere chance. In the third place, this type of question presented a difficult problem in grading and none of the devices, such as subtracting the number of wrong from the number of right or counting only the number of right, or resorting to more involved statistical treatment, seemed to us to bear a sufficiently close relation to the student's knowledge of the subject-matter to justify our use of them.⁴ In this our experience is at variance with that of Dr. Ben D. Wood, who seems to regard this type of examination as the most serviceable. Possibly we never included enough items in our examination to overcome accidental or chance variations. At any rate, we no longer use it.

We do, however, still use a modified form of this true-false type, one which might be described as a "double process" question. The historian will recognize it as an exercise in documentary criticism. We present a series of statements either separately or in paragraph form, each statement being numbered. The students are asked to indicate whether each statement is true or false and then below, in blanks numbered to correspond to the statements above, we ask the student to indicate a proper correction. Mere chance is thereby almost completely eliminated. This type of question is not so easily marked as the more simple form, because the corrections may be stated in several ways, and it, therefore, requires some one very familiar with the work of the course to grade it accurately.

We have also used the "single choice" form of recognition question offering preferably four or five alternatives from which to complete correctly the sentence suggested in the question. This question

likewise offers opportunity for correct answers by chance. The bright youth doing superficial work has an undeserved advantage in dealing with this type of question unless the alternatives are very carefully worked out. When they are carefully worked out, so that all four or five alternatives are plausible choices, but represent shades of difference which only accurate careful study can distinguish, they give the conscientious and superior student an advantage which he has earned. One objection reported by nearly all who have used this type of question is that the four or five alternatives limit the student's actual mental operations too narrowly. We still use this form somewhat, but try to safeguard it as carefully as we can.

One other kind of recognition question which we employ is the so-called "matching" question, in which parallel columns of dates and events or persons and events, causes and results, or terms and definitions are listed and the student is asked to indicate which belong together. This is really a more complex form of the single choice questions discussed above. Our experience with this question has led us to exercise caution in framing it. When the two columns were exactly paired, the opportunity for chance solution was too great. We have, therefore, tended to make use of columns of different length. This, it seemed to us, cut down the possibility of chance solution very greatly.⁵ Another objection to this question is that urged against the more simple single choice, namely, that it tends to limit the range of mental activity. We still use this form.

Still another form of recognition question which we use is that of the analogy which reads like an algebraic equation or logical syllogism. When carefully worked out, this question usually involves desirable thought processes in its solution. In a sense it is a syncopation of the old favorite "compare or contrast" question so commonly used in the essay form of examination. It becomes necessary for the student to extract the principle from the concrete material presented on one side of the analogy, then to apply that principle to the other side in order to suggest the missing concrete information. This is the result under the best circumstances, but, if not safeguarded, the solution may involve nothing more than an obvious association of events or ideas. Like the preceding types, this question also is subject to the objection that it furnishes the student with too much of the information and limits the range of his mental activity in solving the question.

Much more satisfactory from the point of view of our department, is the "completion" type, either in the simple form of filling in a blank in a single statement, or in the more complex form of filling in several blanks in sentences or series of sentences in paragraph form. This type of question seems to offer the least opportunity for mere chance answers. It has the further advantage of permitting almost as wide mental activity as the ordinary essay type of question, while it further encourages the use of precise statement required by the single blanks. The chief

difficulty offered by this type of question is the great care which must be exercised in framing the question so as to guard against ambiguities and at the same time afford the student a reasonable possibility of correct answer. Further, despite the care of those framing the questions, some circumlocution is certain to be used by the student which makes it necessary to employ relatively expert assistance in marking these questions. This type of question, however, is one most favored as a means of testing accurate knowledge of an informational character. In this, our experience is supported by that of our colleagues in science.

We have also tried to discover other objective questions which tend to bring out the student's knowledge of relationship of facts rather than his memory of the facts themselves. We have tried listing a series of events and asking the students to rearrange them in chronological, causal, or logical order of relationship. Our experience with these has not as yet been sufficient to justify any observations of value. Our greatest difficulties with these questions have been guarding against mere memoriter activity and working out a satisfactory scheme for grading the results. The false arrangement of a single item may throw all the rest out of order, raising the question whether the student should, therefore, lose grade on the whole or suffer only the loss of the one point.⁶

Along the same line of seeking other than mere factual knowledge, we have tried hypothetical questions which call for analysis by the student or the application of generalizations and principles gleaned from similar material studied in the course. We have taken paragraphs of source material new to the students or have composed imaginary material and set a series of questions on it. This is similar to the paragraph comprehension items used in reading tests. Here, again, we are just experimenting and have as yet made no great advance.

The question of the relative reliability of the instructor's judgment and the results of objective tests is one usually raised in connection with such discussions. Our experience with this question has been sufficient to justify some tentative observations. On a single test, a comparison of the objective and the essay type seems to show that the objective type offers a more accurate measure of whatever it measures than does the teacher's judgment of an essay type examination. The difference is less marked at the extremes, but, with the great mass neither strikingly good nor bad, the objective type affords a means of definite distribution, whereas the essay type too often leaves a large undistributed middle. Sometimes, too, where experiments have been made, the same papers in this middle group have been given different grades at different times by the same instructor.

Thus far, we have considered the relative performance on a single test. In comparing the instructor's judgment based upon a term's work with the results of a single or series of objective tests, the conclusion reached thus far is that there is very little difference

between the judgment of the good instructors and showings of objective tests. The difference in this case is greater at the extremes, the instructor's "A" students often doing a little less well than expected on objective tests, the instructor's "D, E and F" students doing a little better.⁷ Perhaps this is explained by the fact that these instructors catch what the objective test fails to measure, namely, the student's ability to present his material effectively. Those in charge of the administration of the large Freshman Course in Modern History seem convinced that thus far their objective tests have not proven as reliable as the judgment of the better instructors at the end of the course.

The general conclusions which our experience thus far seems to warrant are the following:

First: The objective type of examination permits the testing of a much wider range of information than the essay type. This is distinctly valuable in history and offers a vast improvement over the "omnibus" questions.

Second: The objective type of examination is more easily graded than the essay type. In dealing with large classes under the somewhat hectic conditions which prevail at the close of the term, this is also a very important advantage.

Third: The objective type of examination yields a wider distribution of grades, and, therefore, makes possible the determination of relative ranking in large classes more accurately than the essay type.

Against these advantages which are very real, the following disadvantages have appeared:

First: The objective type of examination requires much greater time in preparation. It is almost essential to have a group of instructors collaborate in preparing these examinations.⁸

Second: In order to avoid ambiguities and have the questions require single, precise answers, there is a marked tendency to limit the examination to matters which can be so treated. In other words, it seems almost an axiom that the greater the care in safeguarding the questions, the greater the emphasis upon mere factual information.⁹

Third: The foregoing indictment seems to have been recognized by the students and it is already a campus tradition that the best preparation for an impending quiz of the objective type is to commit to memory tables of information and indices of textbooks.

Fourth: In view of this student attitude and likewise in view of the marked contrast between mimeographed or printed forms and the ink insertions by the students, the possibility of gaining information from others by illegitimate means and the temptation to do so is increased.¹⁰

Fifth: The actual cost of making and using the objective types of examination is much greater than the essay type. The instructor's time in preparation, the added clerical work, printing costs and added proctoring, multiply the cost very greatly.¹¹

Finally, despite our best efforts, we have been unable to frame examinations which do not require rela-

tively expert readers. Among the inducements which led us to try the objective tests was the promise that such papers could be safely turned over to clerical assistants and adding machines with results more accurate and more rapid than we could ourselves accomplish. Thus far, we have been unable to achieve this result.

Probably more important to the minds of our staff than this list of pros and cons are the objectives of instruction which we have as yet been unable to measure by means of the objective tests. We have an uneasy feeling that in using these objective tests, most of the thinking has been done by the instructors, leaving to the student merely the task of supplying a few bits of information involved in that thinking. Most of our staff are old-fashioned enough to believe that they have discharged their responsibility for the thinking in guiding the daily work of the course and that at examination time it is the student's turn to show how well he can think with the materials of the course. In other words, they feel that they want to test the student's ability to "think," whatever that may mean. Few matters important enough to be treated in courses in history are simple. As Carl Becker so brilliantly demonstrated at Rochester, even so simple a fact as Caesar's crossing the Rubicon really involves a great number of important elements. Or to borrow a phrase from the address of the retiring President of the American Historical Association, even the simplest historical fact offers many facets. One desirable element in the student's "thinking" which most of us hope for is his recognition of this condition. While we do not expect our undergraduate students to equal Professor Becker's ten-minute explanation of the meaning of Caesar's crossing, we do feel that the student must have latitude to show how well he understands this condition of social phenomena. The objective test does not offer that latitude.

Another value which we have thus far been unable to test in this fashion is the student's ability to check impulsive judgments by thoughtful consideration of the various points of view which enter into any problem. There is a natural tendency to arrive at important social judgments on the basis of what might be termed purely emotional reactions, attitudes created by early environment, accidental and inadequate contacts or temperamental "set." History and all of the social sciences clearly have as one of their chief functions the task of safeguarding society against the dangers of such judgments by trying to establish the habit of circumspection both of fact and point of view. Thus far we have found no better way of attaining this end than by presenting a problem to the student and giving him free range to discuss it in his own way. Similarly must be regarded the tendency to explain important and often complex events in terms of a single, and that often a very simple, cause which tendency history should help to correct. Here, too, we have failed thus far to devise any satisfactory form of question which does not give the student considerable latitude for reply.

Again, we assume that in a study of history and related social sciences, the students may gain some dynamic values, that is, we expect them to apply to new material principles and generalizations which they have learned in the study of these subjects. We have thus far found it difficult to devise satisfactory questions for these values, though, as the reader will have noticed, we have been groping in that direction.

Another element which seems to us important, and yet up to this time beyond reach of the objective test, is the very quality which by title the objective test seems to scorn, that is, the subjective values. Encyclopedic knowledge is of advantage, of course, but we feel that effectiveness in presentation orally or in writing is likewise a very important element. We are inclined, therefore, to value somewhat more highly the student who knows how to make effective use of his information, even if his range of information is not quite so great as that of some other less able to make use of it. Plagued by the thought that we may sometime be called upon to recommend the student for a position, academic or otherwise, we feel that we ought to know about these "subjective qualities." Thus far, we have not been able to gain any help from the objective tests in arriving at such opinions, and, in fact, have actually become somewhat concerned about the tendency which the students are developing under the widespread use of this form of examination to emphasize mere items of isolated information.¹²

Another consideration which we feel should be met is that of allowing the students free range to deal with a problem offered in the examination. Facts in history and in the social sciences are not isolated, but are a part of the social protoplasm which is as wide as society and extends back as far as the beginnings of history. Were the human mind keen enough and capacious enough, it might be possible to trace the ramifications of any important fact in social experience to the remote confines of this social protoplasm. Our ambition extends far short of this goal, but we should like to give the students opportunities to trace such ramifications, unhampered by definite instructions which serve both as guides and as limits to thinking about the problem. For us, this is one of the most important methods of discovering individual differences and special aptitudes among the students in this field, and these qualities can be tested only by questions which permit a wide range of answer.

For these reasons, the members of our department who use the objective type of examination do not employ it for more than one-half of the examination.

¹²This course meets one evening each week during most of the academic year. It arose out of the experience of the University Committee on Educational Research. It was the idea of Dean M. E. Haggerty, chairman of this committee, who felt that there might be a permanent place for such discussion of college educational problems. While

still informal, the course is now in its third year and still attracts a large attendance of instructors and graduate students.

²Paterson, D. G., *Preparation and Use of New Type Examination*.

³Ruch, G. M., *The Improvement of the Written Examination*, 1924.

⁴This may be due to the traditional timidity of the historian toward the statistical method. Our colleagues in psychology have tried to bolster up our courage by assuring us that statistical treatment of sufficient items will yield reliable results.

⁵We are indebted to two of our colleagues for very pertinent advice on this form of question. One suggests that we use at least twelve pairs, while the other adds that one column have some 20 per cent. more items than the other.

⁶Statisticians have been able to grade such answers, but the process is so involved as to make it impractical for most teachers of history.

⁷Such variations, we are told, do not require other than statistical explanations. Apparently, statisticians consider some inclination from both extremes toward mediocrity inevitable, a condition comparable to Galton's regression phenomenon.

⁸This is regarded as imperative by those departments which have used the new-type examination most extensively.

⁹This should not be the case and, as our friends in psychology have pointed out, need not be the case. Possibly further experience will enable us to overcome this fault. Thus far, however, too much of our added care has been devoted to the weeding out of items which by any stretch of the imagination could be answered otherwise than as intended. This has meant in our case the reluctant sacrifice of many significant items, merely because they lent themselves to possible equivocation.

¹⁰This need not occur, according to the experience in psychology, where by the use of elaborate precautions, such as a carefully controlled seating arrangement, the use of two or more sets of questions, and a varied arrangement of questions in the same set, they have been able to eliminate the casual borrowings of information. Deliberate dishonesty may, of course, occur with any style of examination.

¹¹History may be at a permanent disadvantage here, because its subject-matter is undergoing constant modification. Other departments, whose introductory courses are more highly standardized, can after a few years reap the benefit of previous preparations and select from former sets of questions in effective fashion. In the latter case, the cost of preparation is materially reduced.

¹²It was suggested to us that E. L. Thorndike's recently published researches indicate an almost perfect correlation between a student's range of information and his ability to reach high thought levels in a subject. If this generalization of that research is permissible, it may mean that the student capable of the highest thought in the subject is likewise capable of mastering the greatest quantity of information about it. It cannot, it seems to us, mean that the student who stuffs his one- or two-hour examination paper with the greatest amount of information is also the one who does the best thinking. A limited examination period, of course, affords inadequate opportunity to test either complete range of information or altitude of thought, and it is hoped that some test may be devised which will more nearly attain this end.

Courses and Syllabi in the Social Studies

BY BESSIE LOUISE PIERCE, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

A course of study is a guide not only for teachers, but for pupils. It serves as a handbook of definite and thoughtfully conceived facts to be presented and to be mastered. It unifies the work for the year or the semester for which it is designed. It should follow far-sighted aims and objectives. Particularly in history should it co-ordinate the textbook and reference assignments, various classroom activities and devices, and serve as a unifying factor in the assembling and grouping of facts.

The following lists of some of the courses published by state superintendents of instruction and other administrators are intended to be suggestive as to material of this nature which is available. They are not comprehensive nor are all the courses recommended by the compiler.

STATE COURSES OF STUDY

General Course of Study for Arizona Schools. State Board of Education, 1923.

Course of Study for High Schools, Part III, Social Science Studies [Arkansas]. State Board of Education, 1925.

Colorado State Courses of Study in Education. State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1922.

A Manual of the Social Studies for Secondary Schools [Connecticut]. State Board of Education, Hartford, 1924.

A Course of Study in the Social Studies [Connecticut]. State Board of Education, Hartford, 1924.

A Syllabus of a Proposed Course of Study of the History of Delaware for the High Schools of Delaware. (Mimeograph Copy.)

Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Florida. Department of Public Instruction, Tallahassee, 1924.

Manual for Georgia Teachers. State Department of Education, 1925.

State Board of Education of Idaho, *Courses of Study and Manual of Methods for the Public Schools of Idaho.* Vol. IX, November, 1923, No. 9.

Manual and Course of Study for the High Schools of Idaho. State Board of Education, 1923.

Burris, Benjamin J., *History and Social Sciences.* State of Indiana, Department of Public Instruction. Bulletin No. 65-D. Indianapolis, 1923.

Francis, May E., *An Analysis of the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of Iowa.* Published by the State of Iowa, Des Moines, 1924.

Francis, May E., *A Syllabus for the Study of Civics in the High Schools of Iowa.* Published by the State of Iowa, Des Moines, 1923.

McClennahan, P. E., *Course in American Citizenship in the Grades.* For the Grammar Grades VII, VIII. Published by the State of Iowa, Des Moines, 1921.

McClennahan, P. E., *Course in American Citizenship in the Grades.* For the Intermediate Grades IV, V, VI. Published by the State of Iowa, Des Moines, 1921.

McClennahan, P. E., *Course in American Citizenship in the Grades.* For the Primary Grades I, II, III. Published by the State of Iowa, Des Moines, 1921.

Harris, T. H., *State Courses of Study for Elementary Schools of Louisiana.* Department of Education, Ramires-Jones Printing Company, Baton Rouge, La., 1924.

State of Maine, *Course of Study. Outlines of Instruction, Elementary Schools.* State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, 1919.

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A Suggested Plan for the Study of the Constitution of the United States in Elementary and Junior and Senior High Schools. The Commonwealth of Massachusetts; Bulletin of the Department of Education. No. 4, Whole No. 150, 1924.

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State of Minnesota, Department of Education, *Curriculum for Elementary Schools.* State Department of Education, January, 1923.

State of Mississippi, Department of Education, Bulletin No. 29, 1924, *High Schools* (abridged edition), by G. M. Ivy. Issued by W. F. Bond, State Superintendent of Education.

Suggested Courses of Study for Missouri High Schools in American Citizenship. Chas. A. Lee, State Superintendent of Public Schools. Bulletin.

State Courses of Study of the Elementary Schools in the State of Missouri. Chas. A. Lee, State Superintendent of Public Schools, 1924.

State Courses of Study for Montana City Elementary Schools. Prepared by State Department of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana, 1924.

State of Nevada, Supplement to the 1922 Elementary Courses of Study and the 1923 Textbook Adoptions. State Printing Office, Carson City, 1923.

Program of Studies Recommended for the Public Schools of New Hampshire. Grades VII and VIII. State Board of Education, Fourth Edition, 1924.

State of New Jersey Department of Public Instruction, Trenton, *Syllabus of Social Studies for Secondary Schools.* February, 1925.

New Mexico Common Schools Course of Study. Revised Edition. State Department of Education, 1923.

Courses of Study for the High Schools of North Carolina. Educational Publication No. 79, Published by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Raleigh, N. C.

State of Oklahoma Department of Public Instruction, *Course of Study for the Common Schools Grades 1-8.* Bulletin No. 101, Oklahoma City, 1924.

Department of Education of Oregon, *Course of Study for the Elementary Schools, 1922-24.*

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Manual and Course of Study, Elementary Grades, Public Schools of Texas. Bulletin 184, Department of Education, 1925.

Texas High Schools Course of Study. No. 196, State Department of Education, 1925.

Utah Course of Study for the Secondary Schools, The Junior High School. State Department of Public Instruction, Salt Lake City, 1923.

Utah Course of Study for the Secondary Schools, The Senior High School. State Department of Public Instruction, Salt Lake City, 1923.

High Schools of Vermont Manual and Courses of Study. Issued by the State Board of Education, Whole Bulletin No. 1, 1923.

Bulletin State Board of Education, Supplement No. 2, *State Course of Study, High Schools of Virginia, History and Social Science*. Richmond, 1925.

A Course of Study for the Elementary Schools of Wisconsin. State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Madison, 1923.

A Manual for the High Schools of Wisconsin. Issued by John Callahan, Madison, Wis., 1924.

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City of Baltimore Department of Education, *The Social Studies, Course of Study for Senior and Junior High Schools*. Baltimore, 1925.

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Clark, M. G., *Progress and Patriotism, A Course of Study in History*. Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1923. [Public Schools, Sioux City, Iowa.]

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Detroit, Courses of Study, *Social Science (Geography, History, Civics)*, Grades 1-6. Board of Education, Detroit, 1927.

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Pierce, Bessie Louise, *Courses in the Social Studies for Senior High Schools: Tenth Grade (European History)*. University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 118, Iowa City, 1925.

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Board of Education, Trenton, N. J., *Modern European History, Secondary Course of Study, Grade Eleven*. Trenton, N. J., 1924.

How "America Comes of Age in Europe" is explained by Frank H. Simonds as "her resolution to follow its own line," and also by showing in all relations with Europe that "it is more likely to insist upon European compliance with its own conception than bow to European practice. As a consequence Europe has suddenly and acutely become aware politically of us. No longer sustained by the cheerful faith that we would one day become Americans, she is now with effort and anxiety trying to calculate what are to be the consequences, the political consequences, for Europe of our purpose to remain Americans." (March Review of Reviews.)

In the *Rivista d'Italia* for January 15th, Cesare Spellanzon discusses the first king of Italy and his thirty years' reign. Victor-Emmanuel, he says, was the true founder of the constitutional state and of Parliamentary Italy, but he was not at all disposed to annul his strong personality when confronted with the exigencies of Parliamentary demands and ministerial counsel. This constitutional prince had domineering impulses and aims, but he consented to recall to power Cavour after Villafranca because public opinion saw that he alone was able to lead the country out of the difficulties created by Rattazzi. Later, however, the king did not hesitate to lessen the power of the opposition to him among the ministry by putting Reval in power. He governed through, and with, the liberty of the people. His merit was equalled by his good fortune in that he had counsellors who knew how to interpret the conscience of the nation and to guess what was maturing in Europe during the disintegration of the Treaty of 1815, and who knew also how to profit by favorable occasions in their work of creating a new Italy.

The Ballot as a Cultural Instrument

BY HARRY PREBLE SWETT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, PLYMOUTH, N. H.

The Olympiad of our presidential elections is approaching. As ever, since the colonists first brought to the Western World the devices of popular government, many are apprehensive that the unrestricted privilege of the ballot will prove harmful to our democratic civilization.

Without attempting to make specific quotations, which could very easily be done, it appears that sociological writers rather generally are afraid of the ignorant vote and wish that some satisfactory method of curtailment could be found. Even when it is admitted to be a wise policy to let the so-called masses vote, the attitude of mind is frequently not a whole-hearted belief that popular government is thereby inherently strengthened, but a condescension from fear that worse evils, such as uprisings, might result.

This distrust among educated and influential people, if misplaced, as it is the purpose of this paper to show, causes much harm by rendering less effective the possibilities for good in universal suffrage. Indeed, it may be said, offhand, that distrust of popular government by potential leaders is worse than the danger that lies in the ignorant vote.

Distrust of the ballot has for its presupposition an incomplete idea of democracy as solely a form of government. Democracy is a form of government; but if it were only such, it should in many cases yield to dictatorships, now not uncommon in some parts of the world. It is a familiar view that democracy is a "muddling" kind of government, but with more than compensatory accompaniments. It is well to remember this in special cases that appear harmful. Democracy, even more than a political form, is a marvellous agency for raising the cultural level of mankind.

So with the ballot: it is not only a form of political machinery but, at the same time, a means of education, political and otherwise. It is approved pedagogy to have mock elections in schools for motivation and instruction. But what is a mock election compared to a real election? And what, as a teacher in the details of government, is a school mistress compared to a ward official? If a child is trained for voting five or ten years in the future, why not train the person of proper age for real voting by the real process? As is the case with an understanding of democracy, there is, especially with the young teachers with whom the great majority of pupils are in contact, a bias toward the idea that education is an affair of the schools, whereas the best part of culture ought to be gained in post-school days. A well-managed presidential election is a potent educational institution for all adults and no one should be denied the privilege of participation.

The reason most commonly given for restricting the suffrage is danger from ignorance; and the most commonly advocated test that ignorance has been

removed is the ability to read and write. But political ignorance is not removed by the superficial ability to read a sentence or two, or to write something more legible than a few crosses. Ignorance is a grave evil in a civilized society; but the menace of ignorance threatens the ballot perhaps the least of any democratic institution. Indeed, the connection of ignorance with the ballot is usually misplaced. The ballot is a means for removing ignorance, not a precious toy to be kept from the grime of ignorance. As a device for dealing with ignorance and using it without serious harm, universal balloting is wonderfully ingenious.

In most discussions as to the menace of the ignorant voter there is the tacit supposition that ignorance is marshalled in one large camp while wisdom is ensconced in a small fortress opposite. If this were true, then the brute force of ignorance might overwhelm the republic. But no such alignment actually takes place.

It is a familiar phenomenon that spirited elections are often closely contested. The writer once took part in an election, under local option for license, when the issue was decided by a single ballot. At another time, the issue was decided the other way by three votes. Every good battle of the ballots should approach a tie. If there is an issue, concerning which persons honestly differ; if there are only two sides; if there are good candidates on both sides, what can prevent a close vote?

If it should seem that these remarks furnish only hypothetical or trivial evidence that the evil forces tend to divide and neutralize each other in balloting, evidence from our national political history will be more weighty, but it will point to the same conclusion.

From the time when Washington took the oath of office in 1789 to the time when Harding would have finished his term in 1925 there were one hundred thirty-six years. During this time there has been an easily traceable two-party history. If one will list the presidents in two columns, placing Washington at the head of one and Jefferson at the head of the other, arranging them according to political affiliations (putting J. Q. Adams in the Jefferson column), it will be found that the years of the administrations for one column will amount to sixty-eight years, and the years of the other column will total exactly the same—sixty-eight years.

Whatever may be said as to this listing and arguments based upon it, it certainly suggests the mathematical law of chance.

Persons are not things, but, so far as they approach inanimate objects, the law of chance applies to them. Suppose that some voters are entirely ignorant of an issue, and are subjected to all kinds of inducements with equal vigor by each of the two parties. Omit no form of pressure—bribery, personal interest, local pride, patriotism, party loyalty, illogical stump

speeches, valid arguments. In such case each party would secure the same number of votes. For, if there is no reason for voters to choose one side more than another, as reasonable beings, or as unreasoning beings or objects, they will not—no more than a penny will land heads more frequently than tails.

This is a hypothetical case but it is not unlike actual conditions. Every election means a choice and the best choice occurs where there are but two alternatives. It is the business of politics to make every election a two-sided affair, and two-sided only. There would be no sense in voting if all the persuasion and all the arguments tended in one direction. The history of our parties shows that this is just what has been the condition in our country for nearly a century and a half. No one party has all the virtues, nor all the vices; not all the wisdom, nor all the folly; not all the strength, nor all the weakness. The ballot, whenever there is a well-conducted election, tends to remove the force of ignorance by the counteracting power of the divided vote.

Hence, those who say, "Give everybody the vote," and "Get out a full vote," are right. There is more to democracy than these slogans cover, but their applications will help the country more than they will endanger it.

From this consideration of the application of the law of chance to the ballot it may be seen how voting is adapted to every grade of intelligence and information. Every person in thinking about an election thinks on his own level.

Some think on the level of voting always the same straight party ticket. Such persons are to be found equally (practically) in both parties in great numbers. They are the salt of polities and keep the two parties strong. The more such the better. They help win elections; they always help make a strong opposition party, which is as valuable for the country as a successful party.

Since the ignorant, the partially informed, and the stand-patters all tend to line up equally, as if chosen one by one by some invisible leader, these facts explain why the "thinking vote" is what the political leader really fears, not ignorance. If there is a real issue, the thinkers will find it out and they will vote one way. And when the non-thinkers and the careless thinkers have set the scales evenly balanced, it takes but a few ballots to tip them.

These principles suggest various inferences. The first one to mention is this: teachers and writers do a great deal of harm when they explicitly or implicitly persuade persons to think that they should not vote if they are not thoroughly acquainted with the conditions of an election. Time and again one hears the remark, "I think I will not vote. I do not feel competent because I do not know enough about the candidates or the issues."

The retort might be made that such a remark is a confession of laziness and lack of interest, but this argument *ad hominem* does not sufficiently meet the issue. This remark is not made by ignorant persons,

nor by insincere persons. With this plea thousands of really intelligent persons fail to vote. But it should never be pleaded. This process of thinking is a very common means of disfranchising intelligent voters. It does more harm than disfranchising ignorant voters can do good.

Another common way of disfranchising intelligent voters is illustrated by the remark, "What is one vote in a million?" There is no such vote. No vote is engulfed in such a flood. It is a much more valid statement that every vote is usually one of two which offset each other; and, if a vote is not cast, there is the tendency to destroy the equilibrium. The person who really casts the one vote in a million is the person who fully comprehends the conditions; and he will know enough not to refuse to vote. His is one of the few votes, as has been shown, which tip the well-balanced scales.

Another inference would apply to the army of new voters. In the form of advice: Choose a party rather than candidates. The latter come and go rapidly, the former remain permanently. If you do not know which party to choose, think first only of the major parties. Then, if you cannot do better, why not choose the one your father has favored? A good deal of criticism has been leveled at this kind of choice, but why not select your father's party as well as that of some other person's father. This may not be the most rational reason for choice but it is a practical solution. Fathers are rather evenly divided as to party affiliations. If parties are selected on this basis, the country will continue to have two strong parties. This is worth more than any single election.

Of course, if you wish to display independence by voting contrary to the way your father voted, it will be well. Some other independent persons will vote your father's way instead of their fathers'—you will all be serving your country by keeping the major parties going concerns.

It should probably be repeated that this principle of the neutralization of evils by balloting works best when numbers are large and the period of time long. This goes to explain, in part, why cities often have poor governments. With a limited number of voters it is easier for self-seeking groups to get the upper hand. In cities there is need of a more vigorous interest in good government than in national affairs. This seems to be borne out by the common success in overturning municipal governments when voters become aroused.

The conclusion, then, is that the evils of democracy are not primarily due to the ignorant voter. They are due more to lack of good leaders. The machinery of voting gives the opportunity for good leaders to be influential in the midst of and in spite of untoward conditions. The self-styled intelligent citizen cannot blame "the masses" for what he does not like. The ignorant voter (if one pleases to call him such) is worth more to the country than those better favored who fear him and refrain from political activity.

Chart Showing the Development of Political Parties in the United States from 1679 to 1924

BY JULIUS F. PRUFER

It has seemed to the author that for some time there has existed a real need for a chart presenting graphically the development of political parties, which might be used in political science and history departments. The chart discussed herein represents the work of several years and the assistance of some of my students to meet this need.

The chart attempts to show in outline form the development of political parties in the United States from 1679 through 1924. Factions of parties are shown in only a few cases, where they were of sufficient importance to influence directly the election of a President at that time or exercised the control of the administration. Such a case is that of the "Barn Burners" and the "Hunkers" of New York State in the 1840's. The diagram does not show all the alternations in party membership in every period, a task almost impossible and beside the point in this paper. The first reference to political parties as such in England is found in 1679,¹ and a similar division into parties developed in this country about the same time. Therefore, the chart begins with the Tories and Whigs of 1679. The Tories are shown developing into the Loyalists just before the Revolution, and were designated by either name during the Revolution.² The Whigs of 1679 became the Whigs or Colonials, or the Colonial Party during the decade prior to the Revolution,³ while in the decade of the Revolution they were designated the Patriot Party.⁴

The chart makes no provision for the disappearance of the Tories in 1780, for, as Professor Woodburn tells us, at the close of the Revolution there was only one party, and it consisted of the Patriots, the winners of the Revolution, or the post-Revolutionary Whigs of 1781. The Tories became silent, or went to Halifax, or had their houses burned and their property destroyed.⁵

These Whigs or Patriots soon began to divide into two large factions—the Large State or National Party and the Small State or Confederate Party,⁶ a division plainly discernible in the Convention of 1787. As Professor Woodburn so fully and clearly explains:

"In the Constitutional Convention of 1787 we observe this new party division. With the division in this Convention begins the real history of parties in the United States. There were many points of difference and conflicting opinion in the Convention; but the one which was most constant, which ran through a large part of the debates, was the difference between the *Large State* Party and the *Small State* Party, between those who wished to form a *National* government and those who wished to retain a purely *Confederate* government. The *National* Party, composed mostly of representatives from the large States, led by Madison of Virginia, Wilson of Pennsylvania, and King of Massachusetts, wished to form a government in which representation according to population should be provided for in both houses of Congress, in which the controlling power should be vested in the *National* Government. Their

opponents wished the supreme power left with the States. The States' right or *Federal* party believed that the Government should be a confederation of States, that the States should be the source of all power, that the Central Government was to be looked to as merely a convenience for certain general concerns. These conflicting opinions on Nationalism and Federalism determined a member's position on many of the questions before the Convention."⁷

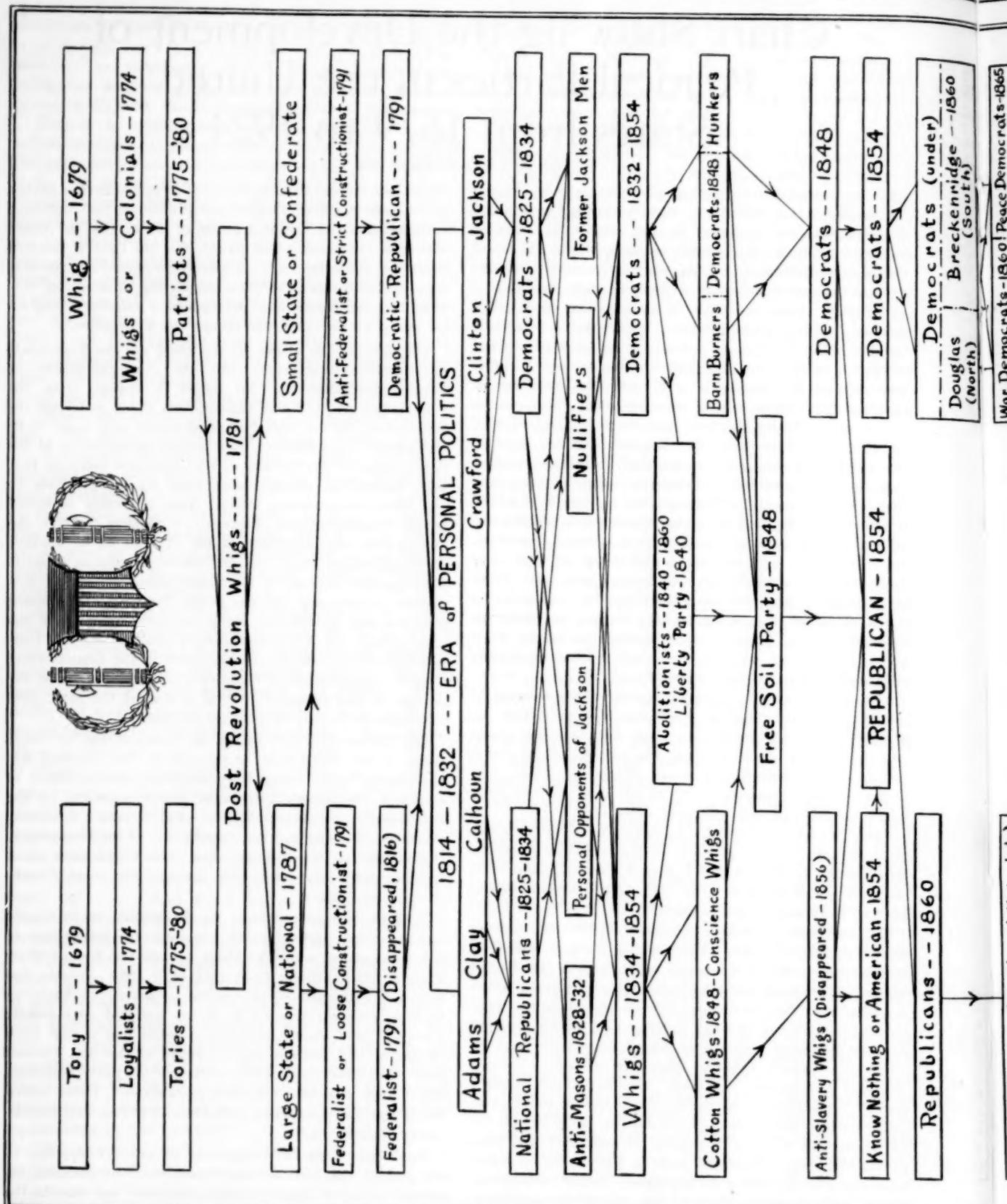
The next parties shown on the chart are the Federalists or Loose-Constructionists and the Anti-Federalists or Strict-Constructionists. To depict a change from the Large State to the Loose Construction Party and from the Small State to the Anti-Federalist Party may seem to be erroneous. This, however, is a correct presentation of the development of the parties, as the chart also indicates that some individuals changed over from the Large State to the Strict Construction Party. This is clearly indicated in the quotation from Professor Woodburn. *After* the Constitution was adopted opinion differed as to whether the Constitution should be interpreted loosely or strictly. *Both* parties believed in the Constitution and in the new Central Government, but one group, the Federalists, would give this new government every possible power, while the other group, the Anti-Federalists, would restrict this Central Government to the powers listed in the Constitution.⁸ Graphic presentation of the successive development of the parties in this formative period is one of the most difficult tasks in a study of political parties.

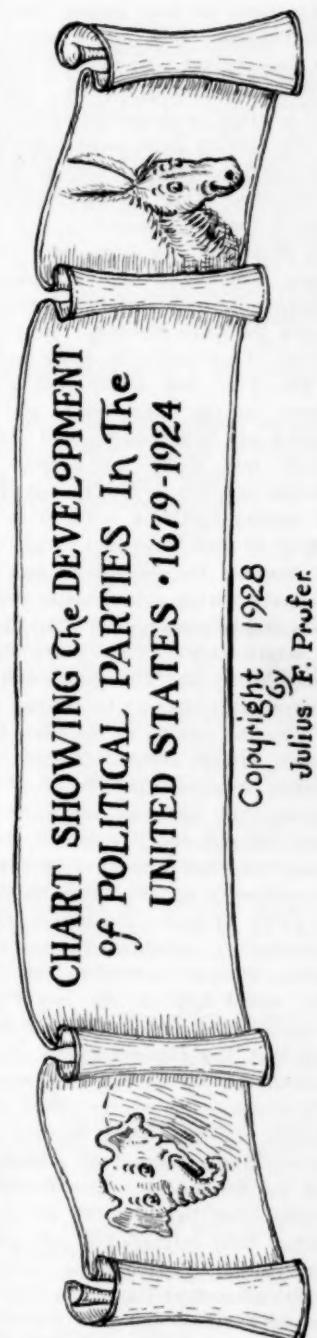
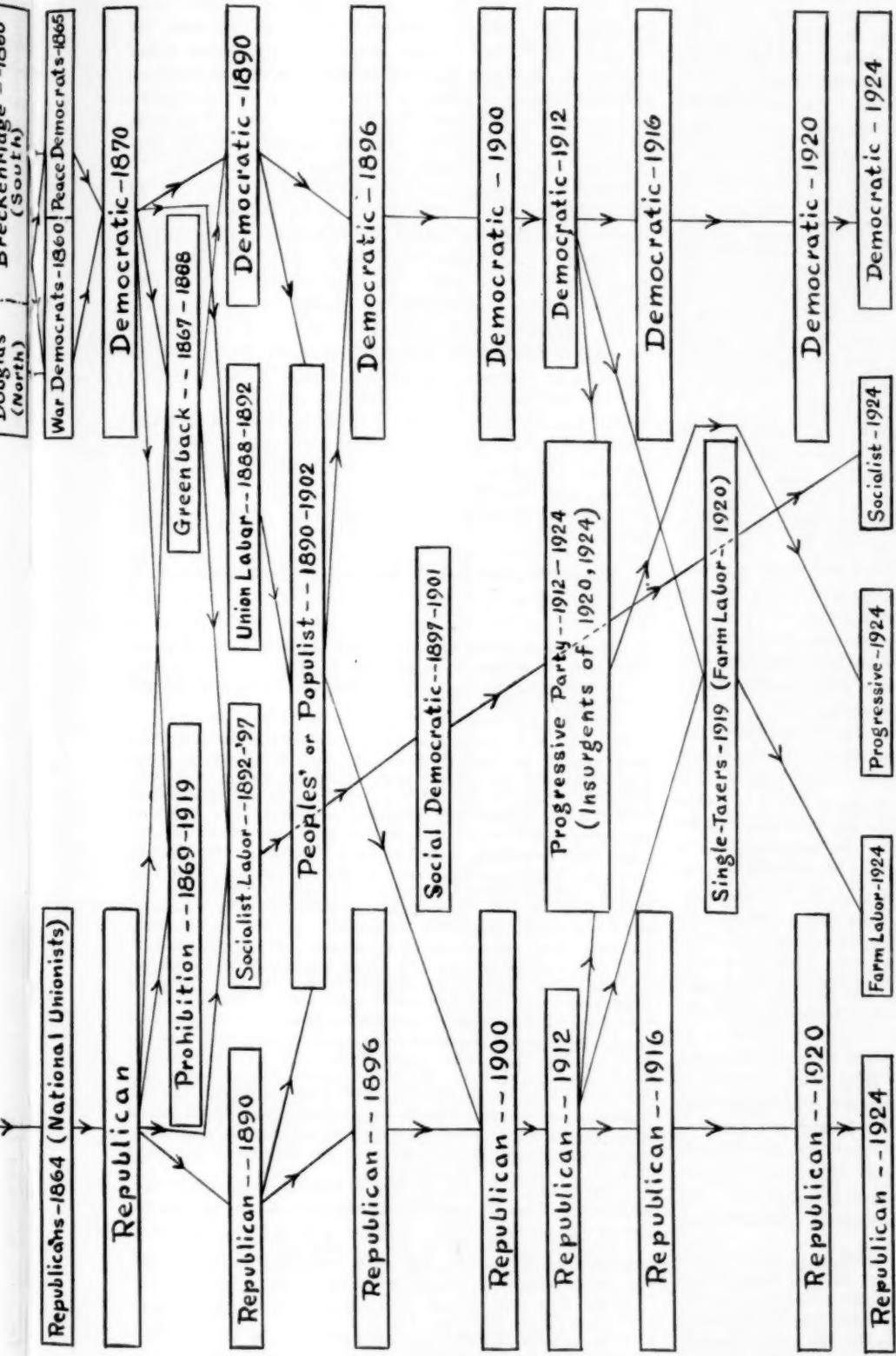
The Federalists are shown as disappearing in 1816.⁹ Some of the Federalists reappeared as the National-Republicans of 1825, though they were very careful never to resurrect the name "Federalist." The members of the Jeffersonian or Anti-Federalist Party were commonly called the Democrats or the Republicans or the Democratic-Republicans, as terms of derision. This latter name stuck to them until they voluntarily dropped the name Republican about 1825.

With the disappearance of the Federalists in 1816, only one organized political party remained—the Republican of the Jeffersonian era. The chart depicts the Era of Good Feeling which follows from 1814 until 1832. Adams was a former Federalist; Clay was the author of the American System; Calhoun believed in strong national government; Crawford was almost unknown; Clinton was a new York Democrat and Jackson was a leader of the new Democracy. The chart shows a regrouping of the party adherents about 1828 into the "National-Republicans" (later called the Whigs), as contrasted with the old Democratic-Republicans of Jefferson.¹⁰

Again there was a realignment of membership, due to the rise of the Anti-Masons, the excesses of Jackson, his efforts to coerce South Carolina in 1833, and due to the

(Continued on page 170)





(Continued from page 167)

belief of some that Jackson was personally unfit for the high office of President. In 1834 many of these elements organized themselves into the Whig Party.¹¹

The Abolitionists as a group are shown with the Liberty Party beneath. This was thought expedient because there were three factions among their ranks:¹² the Garrisonians, the Liberty Party, and a larger group who were opposed to slavery, but who did not desire a political upheaval in order to get rid of slavery. The Liberty Party was really the political organization of the Abolitionists.

The slavery issue became too intense for the Whigs and they divided into the Cotton Whigs of the South and the Conscience Whigs of the North. Slavery became too involved for the Democrats, and by 1848 they had split in the State of New York into two factions, the Hunkers—those Democrats, who, although from the North, would compromise with slavery in order to get the spoils of office—and the Barn Burners, who would wreck the Democratic Party, if necessary, in order to check slavery.

The Free Soil Party was a political organization, as shown on the chart, made up of Conscience Whigs, all shades of Abolitionists, and Democrats. This Free Soil Party was really the agency through which numerous groups opposed to slavery and disgusted with a generation of slavery agitation were to develop into the Republican Party of 1854. The real value of third parties as a means of drawing the individuals out of one old party to ally themselves with a new major party is discussed by Woodburn and he concludes: "[The Know-Nothing Party] served to detach men from old party loyalties and traditions, and many Whigs and Democrats and some Free-Soilers passed through this channel to become Republicans."¹³

With the coming of the Civil War the Democrats of the North rallied around Douglas and those of the South around Breckinridge. Some Democrats were opposed to slavery, but were not yet willing to go so far as to cast their lot with the Republican Party. In 1864 the Republicans who had appeared in 1854 as the outgrowth of a generation of agitation took the name of National-Unionists in order to make themselves appear to be the stronger organization, upholding the union. The Democrats of this period divided themselves into War Democrats of 1860, who would fight to the last for slavery, and the Peace Democrats of 1865, who realized that slavery was gone and that the Democracy of the reconstruction could be revived only by a return to peace.

The remainder of the chart shows a number of minor parties, who had some importance from year to year, as they held the balance of power between the Republicans and the Democrats. The Prohibition Party is shown as disappearing in 1919, for by that time they had accomplished their original and sole purpose of writing into the Constitution a prohibition amendment. Candidates and efforts after that time were interested in enforcement, but the old party of 1869 had dissolved.¹⁴

The rise of Socialism is indicated as gaining its strength from the Republican and Greenback Parties, though undoubtedly some Democrats allied themselves with the movement.¹⁵ The Union Labor Party of 1888-1892 disappeared when most of its issues were taken up by the major parties.

Due to economic unrest and financial differences the Peoples' or Populist Party derived its strength from both the major parties.¹⁶

The Progressive Party of 1912 drew its forces from both major parties and served the very useful purpose of causing both to restate their principles and revive their membership.¹⁷ The Single Taxers are shown on the chart because in 1920 they became allied with the Farm Labor movement, and in 1928 the supporters of this combination held the balance of power in Congress. In 1924 five political parties are depicted: The Republican and Democratic, as the two major parties; and the Farm Labor, the Progressive, and the Socialist, as the three minor parties.

While the Republicans are carried on the left side of the chart, there is no intention to imply that they are directly descended from either the Federalists or the Tories. The present Republican Party cannot be traced behind the Free Soil Party of 1848.¹⁸ The Democratic Party of 1924 can certainly be traced to the Jacksonian-Democratic movement of 1829, and with some degree of care a relation may be noticed between the present Democratic Party and the Jeffersonian Democrats of the last decade of the eighteenth and the first decade of the nineteenth century.

The present chart is but a beginning in a field which seems to contain great possibilities toward assisting the teaching profession and the citizen better to understand parties and their history. Careful analysis and research, it is confidently believed, will justify the present arrangement.

¹ Woodburn, *Political Parties and Party Problems*, p. 6.

² *Ibid.*, p. 9.

³ *Ibid.*

⁴ *Ibid.*

⁵ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, p. 10; Brooks, *Political Parties and Electoral Problems*, Rev. Ed., pp. 47, 48.

⁶ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, p. 10; Bruce, *American Parties and Politics*, pp. 52-53.

⁷ *Op. cit.*, pp. 10-11.

⁸ "To be a Federalist in 1787 or 1788 was to favor the adoption of the Constitution. To be States' right Anti-Federalist was to oppose that. Madison was a National-Federalist with Hamilton then. But to be a Federalist in 1791 was to favor the adoption of Hamilton's financial measures and a broad construction of the Constitution. On these issues Madison ceased to be a Federalist with Hamilton and became a Republican under Jefferson. Both Jefferson and Madison, the originators and organizers of the Republican Party, favored the adoption of the Constitution. That is, they were Federalists in 1787. But they opposed Hamilton's financial measures and broad construction of the Constitution, and joined issue with the Federalists on other measures proposed under the leadership of Hamilton. On the other hand, some of the Anti-Federalists, like Patrick Henry, who had opposed the adoption of the Constitution, gave their adherence to Hamilton and his policy. Yet the major part of the old Anti-Federalists gave their support to the Jeffersonian Republicans, and the great body of the Federalists who did battle for the Constitution continued to be Federalists under Washington and Hamilton. In its underlying principles the Anti-Federalist Party was the forerunner of the Jeffersonian Republicans." (*Op. cit.*, pp. 14-15.)

⁹ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, pp. 12, 35; Bryce, *American Commonwealth*, Vol. II, pp. 7-8; Woodburn, *op. cit.*, pp. 35, 82; Bryce, *op. cit.*, pp. 10-11.

¹⁰ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, p. 38; Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

¹¹ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, pp. 46-47; Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 57.

¹² Woodburn, *op. cit.*, pp. 56-72.

¹³ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, p. 100.

¹⁴ Brooks, *op. cit.*, pp. 111-116.

¹⁵ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, pp. 146-147.

¹⁶ Brooks, *op. cit.*, p. 73ff.

¹⁷ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, Ch. 9.

¹⁸ Woodburn, *op. cit.*, p. 96.

Fitting the Subject to the Capacity of the Pupil

BY SARA G. O'BRIEN, HEAD OF HISTORY DEPARTMENT, SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

We have happily reached a stage in our school system where we have taken an inventory of our stock in trade, and have been forced to see that the study of the child and the method of presenting our subject is of far more importance than the subject-matter itself. Many treatises have been written by able educators on methods of study, on recitations, and on presentation, but of all the recent theories on newer methods, none offers more practical suggestions than those to be found in "The Self-Directed School," by Miller and Hargrave.

The teachers of English, French, mathematics, and history in the Ann Arbor High School have adopted the contract system as set forth in the above-mentioned text. The plan of procedure is described as follows: The work of each course is divided into jobs, each job carrying with it four contracts, which consist of what are called lesson points. These points are assigned to each contract in the following ratio: to contract D, which must be mastered before any other contract is attempted, 4 or 8 lesson points are allotted, which is the basic number; to contract C, 2 or 4 lesson points; to contracts B and A, each 2 points. The contracts are graded according to the marking system used in our school: D, C, B, and A.

The contracts are arranged in advance, subject to revision according to circumstances, and the needs and interests of the class. All work in contract D must be mastered by all members of the class, but not in fixed uniformity. Mastery of contract D earns a mark of D, which is the lowest of the four passing marks. D tests will be graded as follows: D¹ indicates so thorough a mastery of the material found in D test that the student is able to forge ahead and earn his 8 additional points (four of which shall be from contract C, two each from contracts B and A) and thus secure a grade of A. The mark D² indicates that a second test was taken by pupils before they had mastered the D contract; therefore, this mark D² permits the pupils receiving it the privilege of working for a B; grade D³ for a C only, while those whose grade is D⁴ must continue to rewrite the test until a passing grade is secured. This enables every member of the class to master the work according to his own ability. Thus, it is evident that all pupils are required to master contract D, which contains the essentials of the textbook material of said job. The other three contracts contain material related to the subject-matter of the text, but found in supplementary reading, dramatic expression; debates; graphs; map-making; clay-modeling; wood or soap-carving; cartoons or any other illustrative material. Contract C confines itself to reports, written and oral, made from collateral reading and source material; while debates, dramatic expression and all illustrative mate-

rial are especially called for in contracts B and A.

In this method regular recitations are conducted for two weeks or more, according to the time allotted to the job. A test covering the D contract is then given, and all pupils who do not master this contract spend their subsequent recitation periods in working on points in the job which they do not understand, with the individual help of the teacher. The pupils who have mastered the subject-matter of the D contract devote their time to the C, B, and A contracts, according to their ability. Thus, each pupil works at his own individual rate. At last, we have entered upon the beginning of a realization of a program of educating up to capacity.

In order to make the preceding statements clearer, the four contracts of job 2, or the "Period of English Colonization in America," based upon Chapter II in Muzzey's *American History*, are here given:

JOB 2

16 Lesson Points

ENGLISH COLONIZATION *D Contract 8 Lesson Points*

The aim of this contract is to get an understanding of conditions in England of the seventeenth century, so as to appreciate the aims and accomplishments of the English colonists.

The mastery of this contract implies the knowledge of the following facts and the ability:

1. To describe England under the rule of the Stuart kings and then account for the coming of the English to America.
2. To define a colony; to know the motives which impelled, and the methods used in the English system of colonization. To compare this system with that which was used by the Spanish.
3. To make on an outline map of the Atlantic seaboard states, the original boundaries of the London and Plymouth Companies' grants, and then write a report on the physical geography of the territory included within the grants and indicate in your report how these geographic conditions affected the social, industrial, and political life of the settlers.
4. Explain the following and tell with which colony associated: House of Burgesses; Town-Meeting; Patroon System; Fundamental Orders.
5. (a) Write a paper telling of the hardships of colonial life; (b) To tell importance of the following dates: 1606; 1619; 1620; 1636; 1649; 1660; 1689; (c) To write a report on the work of any three of the following colonial leaders: John Smith, Gov. Bradford, Roger Williams, William Penn, John Winthrop, Nathaniel Bacon, Peter Zenger.
6. To sum up the effects in America of the English Restoration in 1660 and the Bloodless Revolution of 1688.

C Contract 4 Lesson Points

The aim of this contract is to get more familiar with the achievements of the early English colonizers through supplementary reading. This work should give practice in the use of reference books, in recording source-material and in ability to organize reports for class presentation.

1 point 1. Colonial Life in Seventeenth Century (Hart, *Source Book in American History*, Chapter V).

4 points 2. Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times (S. G. Fisher).
 2 points 3. Colonial Agriculture, Industries, Land Tenure, Labor System (Bogart).
 1 point 4. Salem Witchcraft (Hart, *Source Book in American History*).
 1 point 5. School books of our Ancestors (*Hist. Teachers' Magazine*, October, 1915).
 1 point 6. Jolly Puritan (HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, October, 1921).
 1 point 7. Colonial Self-Government (Andrews, *Colonial Self-Gov't*, 36-40).
 4 points 8. Child Life in Colonial Days (Alice Earle).
 4 points 9. Home Life in Colonial Days (Alice Earle).
 4 points 10. Customs and Fashions in Old New England (Alice Earle).
 1 point 11. Troubles of Early American Publishers (Payne, *History of Journalism in U. S.*).
 1 point 12. White Servitude in Colony of Virginia (Fiske, *Old Virginia*, Vol. II).
 2 points 13. Make a report on one of the novels in the fiction list.
 1 point 14. Make a diary which will tell of the imaginary happenings in the life of John Alden, Jr., for four weeks in the summer of 1640. *Contract B 2 Lesson Points*

The aim of this contract is to make the period of English Colonial History more meaningful through expression, in drawing, or modeling of the impressions gained through reading.

1. Make a drawing, or a clay model, which will represent a typical puritan.
2. Make a colored picture of John Rolfe's bride.
3. Make a drawing, or a clay or carved model, of the "Mayflower," and write a report on the Mayflower Compact.
4. On an outline map of the Atlantic states, indicate the colonies by color, according to their type of government, as they were in 1740. Also make, in a drawing, the frontier line.
5. Make a drawing of a southern plantation mansion. Imagine yourself as Lally Fairfax, the young daughter in this house, and write a letter in which you describe your home to your cousin, Maude Lennox, who lives in London, England.
6. Make a map of the city of New Amsterdam, 1664.

Contract A 2 Lesson Points

The aim of this contract is to gain appreciation through dramatic expression. By group working, pupils may dramatize scenes from colonial history and present them before the class.

Scenes suggested:

1 point A Colonial Town Meeting (Hart, *Source Book*, p. 132).
 1 point The Trial of a Witch (Hart, *Source Book*, p. 83).
 1 point Courtship of Miles Standish (Longfellow's poem).
 1 point Rip Van Winkle and His Grandfather (Illus. by Caldecott).
 2 points A Dream of Freedom, or Troubles on Land and Sea (*Dramatized Scenes from American History*, by A. Stevenson).

Tableaux:

1 point Pilgrim Fathers.
 1 point Old Belles and Cavaliers.
 1 point Penelope's Suitors (Bynner).
 1 point My Lady Pokahontas (J. E. Cooke).
 1 point Janice Meredith (P. L. Ford).
 2 points A Pageant of Old Colonial Times.

Debates (2 points):

1. *Resolved*, That the principles of self-government were better developed in Massachusetts than in Virginia.
2. *Resolved*, That Peter Zenger's case in New York in 1734 established freedom of the press in America.

PERIOD OF ENGLISH COLONIZATION Job II

References:

American History Leaflets, Nos. 25, 29.
 Andrews, C. M., *Colonial Self-Government in American Nation* (Series, Vol. 5).
 Bogart, *Economic History of United States*.
 Cheyney, *A Short History of England*, Chapters 13-17.
 Doyle, *History of English Colonies*.
 Earle, *Sabbath in Puritan New England*.
 Earle, *Customs and Fashions in Old New England*.
 Earle, *Colonial Days in Old New York*.
 Earle, *Home Life in the Colonies*.
 Eggleston, *Beginners of a Nation*.
 Elson, *History of United States*.
 Fisher, S. G., *Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times*.
 Fisher, *Colonial Era*.
 Fiske, *Dutch and Quaker Colonies*.
 Fiske, *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors*.
 Halsey, *Great Epochs in American History* (Vol. II).
 Hart, *Source Book*.
 Lodge, *The English Colonies*.
 Tappan, E. M., *Letters from Colonial Children*.
 Thwaite, *The Colonies*.
 Yale University Press, *Chronicles of America* (Vols. 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9).

Fiction (2 points each):

Austin, Mrs. J. C., *Betty Alden*.
 Bynner, *Penelope's Suitors*.
 Coffin, *Old Times in the Colonies*.
 Cooke, J. E., *My Lady Pokahontas*.
 Ford, P. L., *Janice Meredith*.
 Goodwin, M. W., *Sir Christopher*, a Romance of a Maryland Manor of 1644.
 Hawthorne, *Twice Told Tales*.
 Hawthorne, *Scarlet Letter*.
 Hawthorne, *Grandfather's Chair*.
 Holland, J. G., *Bay Path*.
 Irving, W., *Rip Van Winkle*.
 Irving, W., *Knickerbocker's History of New York*.
 Johnson, Mary, *Andrey*.
 Johnson, Mary, *To Have and To Hold*.
 Kennedy, Sara B., *The Wooing of Judith*.
 Johnson, Mary, *Prisoners of Hope*.
 Paulding, J. K., *The Dutchman's Fireplace*.
 Sharpless, *Quaker Boy on the Farm and at School*.
 Wilkes, M. E., *The Heart's Highway*.
 Wilkes, M. E., *The Adventures of Ann*.

During the year 1925-26 these contracts were tried out in our high school. Many advantages have been noted as resulting from the experiment.

This plan of procedure is fair to the pupil, for he understands the aim of the lessons of the contract and also knows exactly what he must do in the allotted time. No consolation marks are given in this plan. It is either mastered or it is not mastered. A pupil cannot loaf through the course, cram for a final, and hope to get through. He must do his work daily. There is a wonderful lesson learned in doing a piece of work well and doing it in an allotted time.

This plan vitalizes the subject. More interest is developed, for the pupil has visioned his work and is able by the use of illustrative material to broadcast this vision to his fellow classmates. It has developed in him initiative ability, which under the ordinary system of class recitation would have been wholly neglected. The slower students receive the benefit of the efforts of those that are more talented, and are often inspired to attempt things which they, themselves, would otherwise not feel capable of doing. The best pupil also realizes his own self-respect by

contributing, to the benefit of the whole class, his own unique production. Thus, he learns in his own group the great lesson that the schools are trying to impart: that the useful life is the life of service.

Not only is this plan a challenge to the pupil, but also to the teacher. He must exercise his ingenuity in devising contracts; he becomes better acquainted with his pupils in aiding them to work out of their different ideas; he develops his own methods of presentation and broadens his outlook on educational problems; he develops a deep sense of sympathetic encouragement for the creative work contributed by all

his pupils to the classroom; in fact, the subject becomes more alive to the teacher, and the teacher more alive to the subject.

Briefly, the main benefits that will result from the contract system are as follows: First, practically all pupils may attain a mastery of the subject if they can be induced to catch the contagion of work. Secondly, the individual differences of the pupils in a class can be used to the advantage of every member of the class. Thirdly, every mark gained by the pupil carries with it the satisfaction of an earned mark and a mastered subject.

Definite Requirements for Additional Work in American History Classes

BY FRANCES G. COBURN, HIGH SCHOOL, MARSHFIELD, OREGON

Possessed of three classes in American History composed of both extremes of scholastic ability and inclination, in addition to the usual generous sprinkling of averagers, I was hard put, to bring each member of these groups up to a standard of work that would give me some ease of conscience. Although the poor student is always a problem, the better student was the one who now gave me the most concern. My question was what to do with the rapid, accurate worker to keep him busy; because to hold his interest his time must be occupied, albeit the slow and slower workers must not be swamped—utterly confounded.

The educational systems are again becoming concerned with the recently neglected superior student. In our secondary school curriculums the classics have given ground to the "bread and butter" subjects, and the subjects introduced to take care of the so-called motor-minds. A parallel change has taken place in the classroom. Assignments have been shortened, scholastic requirements eased up a bit, and homage done to the fleet of foot rather than the swift of intellect, the physical athlete rather than the mental athlete.

The solution I eventually reached, I have been told, is worthy of being passed on to others who, like myself, are in systems too small to make classification on the basis of ability possible. Mind you, no claims are made for its near-perfection. Every semester, due to variances in classes, pupils, or circumstances, I have found it desirable and necessary to revise some portions of the scheme, but the general idea and plan remain the same.

Let me at once acknowledge the assistance given, knowingly or otherwise, by teachers, and teachers of teachers. Most particularly do I wish to acknowledge the co-author of this plan, Miss Elizabeth R. Clark, of the West Side High School, of Seattle, Washington.

The plan follows:

Plan 1.

Requirements for an A grade.
Class work averaging A.

Reference reading averaging 75 pages a week. (This to include historical reference and three historical novels, a flat rate of 200 pages for each book.)

One term paper of no less than 2500 words, the subject to be selected from a list of questions provided.

The student will take part in two debates during the semester.

Plan 2.

Requirements for a B grade.

Class work averaging B.

Reference reading averaging 55 pages per week. (This to include historical reference and two historical novels, a flat rate of 200 pages for each book.)

One term paper of no less than 2500 words, the subject to be selected from a list of questions provided.

The student will take part in two debates during the semester.

Plan 3.

Requirements for a C grade.

Class work averaging C.

Reference reading averaging 45 pages a week. (This to include historical reference and two historical novels, a flat rate of 200 pages for each book.)

The student will take part in one debate during the semester.

Plan 4.

Requirements for a D grade.

Class work averaging D.

Reference reading averaging 30 pages a week. (This to include historical reference and one historical novel, a flat rate of 200 pages for each book.)

The student will take part in one debate during the semester.

The term "class work" refers, of course, to the minimum necessary reciting of the text, embellished from time to time by brief special reports and interesting details offered by the students, gained from reference reading or any source whatsoever. The acceptability of such details depended on the reliability of the source and the ability of the student to name his authority. By far the most important portion of the class work, to my mind, was the time, effort, and thought expended on the application of principles learned to the newly arising political and economic situations; the discovering of circumstances then and now that were parallel in some respects; the explaining of the why's, how's, and wherefore's of historical movements and events, in terms of the lives of the men or groups of

men who were at the time shaping the policies of the nations. Here in an intimate study of the lives, personal characteristics, strength, and weaknesses of the lieutenants and their subordinates does the high school student have a chance to estimate his own personal possibilities. Great deeds, in spite of shortcomings, mistakes, handicaps, general left-handedness, is a valuable lesson to the student.

The student reported his reference reading in the form of résumés or outlines as he wished—the one requirement being regularity. He reported his historical novel by filling out a brief blank, as follows:

1. Did you like the book?
2. Would you advise others to read it?
3. Why?
4. Describe a principal character or an event which shows the historical value of the book.

I believe the historical novel has a definite place in a course in history. To quote Matthew L. Dann, in the November, 1927, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*: "Progressive teachers no longer burden their pupils with bulky lists of names or of unassimilated dates, nor do they feed their classes on the sawdust of the details of battles, the petty intrigues of courtiers and of politicians, or incidents of transient significance. Emphasis falls rather upon those events and movements which have had an enduring influence in the advance of the race, and upon those persons and acts from which something may be gleaned of value in the life of the present time." To achieve this we must get the outlook of the people of the period: we must acquire a knowledge of their immediate surroundings; we must know what they were most concerned about—what were their chief worries. In other words, we need the atmosphere of the period and this is what the novelist gives us. He reconstructs an everyday situation, in which his characters think, travel, talk, worship, dress, eat, amuse themselves, and transgress the laws of God and man in the spirit and after the fashion of the period. A worthy historical novel carries the student into the very action of a previous time. He revenges massacres with the "Black Hunter"; he steals off to train Minute Men with Charles, the bond-servant; he, too, marches knee-deep in icy waters through the Ohio Valley with the soldiers of "The Crossing"; and he drinks acorn coffee with "The Littlest Rebel."

The selection of a suitable list of novels for this work is quite a task, the excellence of which depends much upon the library facilities of the school and community.

The 2500-word theme was required of the A and B students only, because, since American History in the Oregon Course of Study is a junior subject, we doubted that such a paper put out by a C or D student would be worth to him the time and effort spent. But in this day of mass-publication it is necessary that the above-average individual be able to read rapidly, and—still more necessary—in his reading to fix readily upon the essential points, disregarding the unessential. As a college student, a professional man, a responsible, efficient officeholder

in a republic, a business man, a club member he must be able with speed and accuracy to bring order out of the chaos of his thoughts and information. His point must be made with decision, and his arguments well substantiated. He must know where information is to be found, how to use books, the accepted methods of bibliography building, and the extreme importance of accuracy in every detail. This 2500-word theme will give the A and B students at least an inkling of the importance of all this and will start them along the right path.

The requirements concerning the mechanics of the theme were rather exact.

1. Requirements.
 - a. Bibliography of report, containing not less than 15 references, to be in hands of teacher by specified date during first six weeks' period.
 - b. Outline of report to be in hands of teacher by a specified date in the second six weeks' period.
 - c. Report to be written on basis of above-mentioned outline and in hands of teacher by following specified date in the third six weeks' period.
- d. Rules to be observed:
 1. Minimum length of 2500 words.
 2. Written on typewriter-size paper, in ink or type-written.
 3. Appropriate cover design.
 4. First page of report inside of cover to include subject, name of writer, and date.
 5. Second page to include outline (table of contents).
 6. Third page to include bibliography.
 - a) References alphabetically placed in this order.
 - 1) General accounts.
 - 2) Special accounts.
 - 3) Collections of documents.
 - 4) Periodicals.
 - b) All references to include name and location of publisher and date of publication.
 7. Fourth page beginning of body of report.
 8. Proper footnotes attached according to: 1) each important statement of fact in the text, and 2) any inference borrowed from another writer.

In the selection of subject the child was given a good deal of liberty. A list of suggestions was posted to serve as a source or as inspiration. All topics were approved by the instructor.

The scheme of debates took the place of the old type of special reports. All students need exercise in standing before a class and talking knowingly and convincingly on some subject, but the "report" has definite disadvantages. It seldom commands the attention of all the class, for many are bound to be relatively poor and consequently a bore to the listeners. Moreover, a report so amount to much must take up from fifteen to twenty minutes or better. Thirty reports of an average of fifteen minutes, means fifteen recitation periods of thirty minutes each, or ten recitation periods of forty-five minutes each, which is considerable time out of a term for one phase of the work when there are so many demands.

Here is a comparison of the special report and the debate on the basis of (1) attention of the class, (2) amount of class time consumed, (3) interest aroused.

Considering the last item first: Competition seldom fails to arouse interest, and a class debate on a subject within the scope of the students' understand-

ing stirs up the liveliest kind of interest, on the part of both the debaters and the listeners. The aim in such discourse—to convince—is far more appealing than that of the usual special report, which is to give information. In the second place, allowing seven minutes for constructive argument and three minutes for rebuttal, four people get their opportunity to appear before the class in approximately thirty-five minutes, while four special reports would average sixty minutes. Finally, the attention of the class may be compelled in the debate scheme by making each student act in the capacity of a regulation judge, whereas under the report plan the most that can be hoped for is an outline of facts given.

The following is the plan of report that each judge used: The student divided a sheet of paper into halves lengthwise. To the left of the line he recorded the points made by the affirmative; to the right the refutation made by the negative, opposite the point to which it applied, and any points they, the negative, added. The rebuttal was handled in the same way. At the base of the paper the student recorded his vote and told why he had cast it so. In addition to that he indicated which of the four debaters he considered the best and why. The pupil's grade for the day depended on his record of the debate. Needless to say, such a report necessitated rather close attention to the proceedings in the class.

The questions most often asked concerning the workability of the plan and its effects on the students are: 1) Wasn't quantity emphasized over quality? 2) Would the student select to take a lower grade rather than do the additional work? 3) Was the poorer student discouraged?

The fact that reference reading and themes were not made a substitute for excellence in class work answers the first question. Class recitations had to

be kept at A, regardless of how much additional work was done. It was a case of quantity with quality maintained.

So far from the student's electing to take a lower grade and do less work, the tendency was to elect a plan carrying a higher grade than he had previously earned. Of the 150 people enrolled in American History not a one elected to take the D plan. However, in the course of the first six weeks' period, some discovered they had aimed a bit too high and adjusted themselves of their own free will to the plan corresponding to their grades of the preceding semester. Thus the D's were doing as much as formerly, while the C's, B's, and A's were keeping up their grades and working nearer to capacity than before.

There was no more discouragement on the part of the poor student than ever. I believe that in reality he was more satisfied, since there were not those around him who had finished their work and had time to waste, time to waste distracting his attention from his task, keeping him from getting his lesson.

It was my conviction as the result of the working out of this scheme that I had hit the mark at which I aimed. The exceptional student was doing work which made a real demand upon his ability, and the slower one was getting the minimum essentials of the course. (A device for posting on the bulletin board of the classroom the daily grades of the student was being tried out in the entire high school, thus enabling the child to know exactly where he stood from day to day and every day.) The student liked the plan I have outlined above, because he knew from the beginning of the semester just what was to be required of him. He knew that there would be no unexpected last-minute demands made. He liked the certainty of knowing where he was going and how he was progressing along the way.

An Evening in a Castle, a Playlet for Class Use

BY MIRETTA L. BICKFORD, WEAVER HIGH SCHOOL, HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT

The following playlet I have used successfully several times in my own history classes. It was written in the effort to visualize the life of the Middle Ages for the high school pupil. For classroom dramatization no costuming is necessary, but if a more pretentious production is desired, as, for instance, on assembly program before the entire school, simple costumes in keeping with the period (France, in the fourteenth century) and a few stage fittings add greatly to the effect.

CHARACTERS

Lord of Alain.

Lady, wife of Lord.

Serf, Jean, attended by two other serfs.

Prince (son of Lord) Francois.

Princess (daughter of Lord) Marguerite.

Second Princess, Louisa, cousin to Marguerite.

Jacques, a servant.

Troubadour, Theodore.

Pilgrim.

LORD TO SERF: Why did I not receive the heriot due me at the death of Jean, thy father?

SERF: May it please your lordship, the heriot will be given. We already have told the overseer that the ox would be delivered when the work on the highway had been done.

LORD: Excuses, bah! you serfs are all excuses. When the aid was called in June, when Francois was knighted, you had not the sum. The late season, the illness of your father. He were a better serf than thou. Thou hast not learned his ways of thrift.

SERF: Please, sire; you forget—

LORD: Away, away! No more talk. Remember, the ox must be in the north meadow at noon tomorrow, else I take your holding. Now—begone!

SERF: Ay, ay, sire; so shall it be. (Serfs withdraw a few steps, then stop and speak.) The time

comes, my liege, when serfs shall be no longer sticks and stones, but men!

LORD: Thou should thank heaven that even now some change has come. Would your father so have spoken to my father? Nay, thou knowst if he had, even now would he have been thrust below into the dungeon. Now get you gone.

(*Serfs withdraw.*)

(To Jacques.) Jacques, haste thee to the outer court and lift the bridge. (Exit Jacques.)

These are troublesome times. The north of France is war ravaged. The Count of Toulouse, my liege, may yet call on me for levies to enter the fray.

PRINCE: Would to heaven he would. Then, perchance, might I go forth to fight, and with blood wash from off my sword the rust with which thy commands have covered it.

PRINCESS MARGUERITE: Nay, nay, Francois; speak not so. Thou knowst that if thou art gone, then mother and I are alone, with only the servants, in this pile of stone, whilst father journeys over the demesne to keep his lands entire. Servants, thou knowst, cannot be trusted as of yore.

LORD: My son, thou art something too eager. A stout heart and sturdy arm, I trow, are needed, but some one must be here at Alain. Canst still be knight and as chivalrously protect thy mother and sister as splinter lance for the Dauphin in the North? But—hist—Jacques returns and not alone. The roads are so swarmed with wanderers and deserters from the northern armies that there is no feeling of security even within our own ramparts, which have sheltered our fathers' fathers.

(To Jacques.) Speak! Who hast thou there?

(Jacques enters with Troubadour and Pilgrim following him.)

JACQUES: My lord, as I was about to lift the bridge, I heard a horn sound. Then through the thickness of the mist I beheld two figures. They desired admittance. May it please your worship.

LORD: (To Jacques.) Enough!

(To first stranger, who is ahead; i. e., the Troubadour.) Now, sir; answer. Who art thou? Whither art thou bound? Why art thou abroad? In such times as these, one dare not trust one's brother.

ROUBADOUR: Theodore, am I, of no town, but of all France. If thou givest us lodging for the night, I'll bring thee news of battle in the North, of songs sung as the army halts and awaits the foe. This, my companion, although I never met with him until two hours before the sunset, I swear to thee comes not to bring thee hurt. A pilgrim he, returning from the Holy Place, Jerusalem. See, he bears the palm.

LORD: Ay, ay, 'tis well, I see, 'tis well. In the old days I remember how oft my father received the minstrel and how many an evening was made gay by the songs he sang and the tales he told. Roland at Roncesvalles, Arthur and Guinevere and Lancelot, and all the rest. Yes, yes, I accept your pledge. Come, sit, and tell us of the North.

ROUBADOUR: Not many nights ago I was at Count Raymond's—he of Toulouse. There I saw and spoke with one fresh from Poitiers. He it was who

gave me this account of the great fight and the capture of our king. Truly this battle was right great and perilous, the fighters on both sides endured much pain. King John, himself, of France with his own hands did that day marvels in arms. He bore an axe wherewith he defended himself and fought in the breaking of the press. Hordes fell as he attacked them. At the gates of Poitiers the pursuit ended. Here many, both horse and man, were slain and beaten down, for Poitiers closed their gates and allowed none to enter. The Frenchmen yielded themselves to Englishmen—divers there were with four, five, or six prisoners.

Then there was a great press to take the king and such as knew him cried, "Sire, yield ye, or else ye are but dead." The king demanded to be led unto his cousin, the Prince of Wales, he men call the Black Prince. The one to whom he spoke offered to conduct him unto the presence of the Prince. Of him the king asked, "Who be you?" "Sir," quoth he, "I am Denis of Morbeke, a knight of Artois, but I serve the king of England, because I am banished from the realm of France." Then the king gave him his right gauntlet, saying, "I yield me to you."

PRINCE FRANCOIS: Where were all the loyal knights of France to so basely desert their liege?

PILGRIM: Sir, thou knowest not in this sweet southern clime the pain into which France is plunged. Unless a deliverer come to reunite us, France is lost to England. (To the Troubadour.) Finish the tale, sir; I eagerly await the outcome. I've been so long away that I've heard only vague rumors of the war.

ROUBADOUR: So great was the eagerness to gain glory by the capture of the king that a party had by force taken him from Morbeke. The king was wroth and tried to end the strife and again besought that they conduct him to the Prince. When he was come hither, a banquet was spread for him. The Prince most humbly served him and refused to sit with him at his board. He promised him fair treatment at the hands of King Edward, his father.

LADY: It would seem these raw English were learning manners in France.

ROUBADOUR: Ay, so would it and the need were great. Still, the English are brave and bold, as the Pilgrim here can prove.

PILGRIM: Indeed, the Holy Land yet thrills with reports of their prowess under the dauntless Richard. At the capture of the Holy City, in which many English participated, in Solomon's Porch and in his temple, the men rode in the blood of the Saracens up to the knees of their horses. The Turk yet trembles at the remembrance.

LADY: Come, come, enough of blood and war. We women who but stay within the walls and bear the greater strain, that of uncertainty, when you are hot with the glory of the strife, we, I say, would fain hear tales of another sort. War touches us too closely now for us to take pleasure in hearing of its horrors. Marguerite, sing us the melodie Pierre taught thee when last he was with us.

SECOND PRINCESS, LOUISA: Yes, do, cousin; thou

hast not sung it for so long it will be as a new song to us.

(Princess Marguerite here sings the Troubadour song.) "Troubadour Song," by Kurt Schindler, published by A. Schirmer, New York.

PILGRIM (After the song): We thank thee, lady. I have seen Pierre and heard his songs; they are worth the learning. (Addressing Troubadour.) Come, brother, what was the poem you were reciting to me as we neared this castle?

ROBES: It was a serenade. The ladies object to war and turn to love. A union old as time is that of love and war.

This is the rhyme:

"Fair to me is April bearing,
Winds that o'er me softly blow,
Nightingales their music airing,
While the stars serenely glow;
All the birds, as they have power,
While the dews of morning wait,
Sing of joy in sky and bower,
Each consorting with his mate.

"And as all the world is wearing
New delight while new leaves grow,
'Twould be vain to try forsaking
Love which makes my joys o'erflow.

Both by habit and by dower,
Gladness is my rightful state,
And when clouds no longer lower,
Quick my heart throws off its weight.

"Helen were not worth comparing,
Gardens no such beauty show.
Teeth of pearl, the truth declaring;
Blooming cheeks, a neck of snow;
Tresses like a golden shower,
Courtly charms, for baseness, hate;
God who bade her thus o'ertower
All the rest, her way make straight."¹

LADY: We thank thee for the news of war and also for the poem of true devotion. Thou hast earned thy rest. It now grows late. Tomorrow brings its duties. Come, Marguerite and Louisa! We leave thee. Sweet rest and pleasant dreams. When again you twain pass near our castle, we hope to see you and repeat an evening as pleasant as this one. Farewell. (Exeunt the Princesses and Lady.)

LORD: 'Tis true, the night is old. We must also to rest. The morrow I must away to these wretched serfs to see they keep the promise and pay the debt.

¹ By Armant. Taken from Justin H. Smith, "Troubadours at Home."

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

The American Historical Association announces the appointment of Professor Dexter Perkins, of the University of Rochester, to serve as Secretary of the Association for the year 1928, in succession to the late Professor John Spencer Bassett, of Smith College.

Professor Perkins is a graduate of Harvard University in the class of 1909 and received the doctorate in history from the same institution in 1914. His best known historical work, *The Monroe Doctrine, 1823-1826*, is generally recognized as the best account available of the interpretation and influence of the "Doctrine" during these early years.

The Boston meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies was held on February 25, 1928, in the Assembly Hall of the College of Practical Arts and Letters, Boston University. The following program was presented before a large group of interested teachers: "Some Major Problems of an Interdependent World: 1. The Economic World Community and Its Problems," Prof. Parker T. Moon, Columbia University; "2. Problems of Nationalism in a World Community," Dr. Jonathan Scott, New York University; "3. Problems of International Organization," Dr. Raymond Leslie Buell, Foreign Policy Association. The afternoon session was devoted to a discussion of the problem, "How May Education Contribute to Intelligent Understanding of International Relations and World Politics?" Papers were read, as follows: "1. Some Fundamentals of the Problem," Dean William F. Russell, Teachers' College, Columbia University; "2. What Can Be Done Through the Teaching of History?," Prof. Richard Shryock, Duke University; "3. What Can Be Done Through the Teaching of Civics?," W. G. Kimmel, New York State Department of Education; "4. What Can Be Done Through the Teaching of Geography?," Prof. J. Russell Smith, Columbia University.

A recent study into the fundamentally important question of what qualities constitute good traits of citizenship has been made by Madge Maude McKinney. Her study, entitled, "Certain Characteristics of Citizens," was accepted by the Department of Political Science of the University of Chicago as a doctoral thesis in December, 1927. The objectives of the study may be summarized in three questions: (1) Is there a commonly accepted standard of citizenship in America? (2) If such a common standard of citizenship does exist, what are its elements, i. e., what are the accepted traits of good citizenship? (3) If such traits do exist, how can their presence or absence in an individual be tested? The third question involves, primarily, a technique for the investigation of the second question raised.

In determining whether there is a generally accepted standard of citizenship, Miss McKinney selected nineteen groups of citizens of various social and economic status scattered throughout the Middle West. The names of all the members of a selected group were listed, and submitted to several individuals who were personally acquainted with all the members. These individuals, who were themselves representative of a segment of the American public, and who are called the "raters" in the study, then ranked all the members of the group on the basis of their citizenship qualities. Their rating was purely a subjective ranking, for they were left entirely to their own conceptions of the term citizenship and the qualities constituting good citizenship. The various ratings made by these individuals for a selected group were then compared, and a rather high degree of correlation among the ratings appeared. The results gave evidence of a fairly definite and general consensus of opinion among the "raters" as to standards of citizenship. The first inquiry of the study, then, was answered in the affirmative.

The second part of the study was to devise a test which would gauge certain assumed qualities of citizenship, and then to give this test to the 512 individuals composing the nineteen groups under investigation. It was hoped that such a procedure would reveal a consensus of opinion among all the "raters" of all the groups as to what actually constituted good citizenship, for if the same qualities were possessed by all the individuals selected by the "raters" as good citizens and other qualities were uniformly possessed by the poor citizens, the qualities *generally recognized as qualities of good citizenship* could be isolated. However, the results of this section of the study proved inconclusive.

The weakness of this section of the study is due, apparently, to the type of test selected as a measure of citizenship qualities. The test consisted of some ninety items, embracing matching questions, true-false questions, and a variety of other devices. "The first part of the test was designed to measure Political Information; the second, Political Judgment; the third, Political Activities; and the fourth, General Intelligence." The author of the study writes, "The only conclusion that can be drawn (from the test results) is that political activities bore a heavier weight in determining the citizenship of the individual than did political information or political judgment."

In the matter of further testing of citizenship qualities, the author suggests the possibility of such analysis as Lasswell now has under way at the University of Chicago, the determination of the extent to which a correlation exists between the physiological and psychological factors of a human personality and the civic or political qualities possessed by the same personality.

Howard E. Wilson's *Laboratory Manual in American History* (American Book Co.) is one of the most complete manuals published for use by pupils at the senior high school level. The whole field of American history is organized in ten units. Each unit includes an "overview"; reading lists grouped as collateral references, biography, travel, reminiscence, essay, topical account; imaginative literature; motion pictures, and a test. Every unit is subdivided into a series of topics, each of which includes a guidance outline, a series of floor talks with specific page references, a list of reading materials with page references to supplementary texts, collateral readings, and sources, a list of summary questions, and a list of problems and projects. Series of additional exercises with special bibliographies, map studies, and exercises in the making of graphs and charts are some of the special pedagogical aids. The tests used include the following types: true-false, completion, multiple-choice, and interpretation of discussion. The author provides detailed directions to pupils and teachers for the use of the manual. There are also lists of basic books for teacher and pupils.

Features of the manual which commend it to teachers for their own use, as well as for use by pupils, are: carefully selected book lists, overviews for each unit, the specific page references, guidance outlines, floor talk topics, and diversified problems and activities. The complete lists of motion pictures represent a new departure in manuals. Pupils will find the manual a helpful guide to reading and study, as well as a serviceable check on their mastery of the materials studied. The pages are perforated and punched so that they can be included in pupils' notebooks. The manual has been prepared in the classroom; it represents a painstaking piece of work, and sets a high standard for publications of this type.

The January number of *The School Review* contains a study of "The Civic Attitudes of High School Sophomores." Data are given for 60 pupils, including self-rating, rating by teachers, intelligence quotients, and scores on both forms of the Hill Civic Attitudes Test. The writer presents an adequate interpretation of his data. Findings include: (1) 25 pupils rated themselves the same as their ratings by teachers, while 21 pupils rated themselves lower, and 14 rated themselves higher, than the rating by teachers; (2) the median I. Q. is 100.8; (3) The Hill Civic Attitudes

Test involves reading, judgment, reasoning, and vocabulary ability; (4) it is more valuable as a survey than for diagnostic purposes; (5) it "appears to be both valid and reliable"; (6) there is a correlation between intelligence quotients and scores, although two of the six pupils who made perfect scores had intelligence quotients below 100.

Edith P. Parker, in the February issue of *The Elementary School Journal*, discusses the "Selection of Map Equipment for Elementary Schools." Eleven questions are presented as considerations to be kept in mind in selection of maps. Factors to be considered, as discussed by the writer, are: (1) amount and kind of information recorded on the map; (2) suitability of projection used in relation to types of facts recorded; (3) simplicity, legibility, and clarity should determine the recording of facts. Data reported by teachers from 102 widely distributed localities show that political maps are more widely used than any other kind, and in 21 per cent. of the cases political maps are the only maps owned.

What shall be the dominant aim of instruction in history? Arthur D. Cromwell, in "History for Qualitative Democracy," in the February number of *Educational Review*, expresses the dominant aim as instruction in cultural contributions rather than narrative history, which seems to be the prevailing content for instructional purposes. The writer, a supervisor of teaching in rural schools, then describes the procedures used in a one-room rural school in teaching the European Background course in the sixth grade. He cites two advantages in favor of the rural school: (1) it is detached and free to try new methods under close supervision, and (2) it affords a natural audience situation for newer types of activities. Activities developed include project work, the use of the sand table, the making of a historical "movie," drawings, and dramatization. Probably one of the reasons for the success of the work is found in the fact that the teacher selected to initiate the work was a capable young woman, who received a salary of \$2,000, with two years of teaching experience before entering the normal school.

"Education for Citizenship" has been a favorite theme for discussion by countless persons during the past decade. Much of the discussion has been featured by the recital of time-worn platitudes and endless repetitions of random observations. It is worth while to be shaken out of complacency by a spirited discussion of the subject by H. W. Guest in the February issue of *Education*. The learning of facts on the machinery, forms, and intricacies of government is meaningless without the development of a social point of view, based on the cultivation of a scientific attitude and an objective point of view. The problem is one of social ethics, ideals, and attitudes, not scholastic dogmas and platitudes which encourage mob-mindedness and other negative traits. Through a generous use of problems, projects, and activities, pupils must be encouraged to think for themselves in an objective and analytical manner.

"The Value of Pictures in Teaching History," by Cecil L. Ross, in the February issue of *Journal of Educational Research*, is a description of the technique in an experiment which involves the use of pictures and a statement of results. The period covered deals with the life of Napoleon. "The problem is to compare the effectiveness of verbal presentation with effectiveness of verbal presentation plus pictures..." Two classes were used in the experiment; the Terman Group Test was used and there was little variability in scores between the classes; the pictures dealing mainly with Napoleon's military career were divided into two groups; one class was shown on the screen a picture from Group I with a paired-phrase caption, followed by a picture from Group II without a caption, and so on through the entire list; in the other class, the phrases from Group I without pictures were alternated with those from Group II with pictures. A test, given to both classes, involved the matching of the phrases, one-half of which

were disarranged, with the titles of the pictures. The results indicate that the group in visual presentation gained 55 per cent. of correct answers, while the group in verbal presentation obtained 47 per cent. of correct answers. Copies of the titles and captions of pictures are given. The experiment seemed to involve the identification of pictures rather than a study of the details of pictures.

Study-Guide Tests in American History: Part I, From 1492 to 1860, by M. J. Stormzand, is a 64-page pamphlet of tests for the use of pupils at the junior high school in the mastery of content materials. Types of tests include: completion, true-false, matching, and variations of these types. A point score is provided for each of the tests for twenty-seven lessons and for the four review tests. There are nine map studies in the form of outline maps, with several exercises for each map study. Every page is perforated. The cover pages contain a table of contents, an introduction for pupils, a list of directions, and a pupil's record blank. The materials are published by the Macmillan Company.

Philip Nanes, Bessie H. Stanton, and Eugene A. Horowitz, of the Civics Department of Bushwick High School, Brooklyn, New York, have published an 89-page pamphlet, *Unit Progress Outline in Community Civics*. The materials are organized in the form of nineteen topics, ranging all the way from "Our Water Supply" to "The Citizen as a Voter." Each topic is subdivided into a number of lessons, with outlines, questions, blank pages for assignments and references. The booklet is intended for the use of pupils as a guide to instruction in civics. There is an introduction by Dr. Milo F. McDonald, Principal of Bushwick High School.

Teachers of Early European History will desire copies of Ralph Van Deman Magoffin's *The Roman Forum: The Greatest Small Spot on Earth* (New York, Service Bureau for Classical Teachers, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1927. Price, 25 cents per copy, plus postage). This 38-page pamphlet is copiously illustrated with many copies of engravings and paintings as well as current photographs. The content deals with the history of the Forum, important buildings, and present-day knowledge about important features of the Forum.

Anything written about books by May Lamberton Becker is always welcomed by alert teachers who keep abreast of new publications. Her *A Reader's Guide Book* (Henry Holt & Co., 1924) is a source of ready reference, and *Adventures in Reading* (New York, Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1927) is a volume on children's books written for children. The author knows children, writes in an interesting style, and possesses the ability to present books in an interesting manner. Three chapters are of immediate interest to teachers of the social studies. "Discovering the Delights of History," a fine title to introduce a chapter, opens with a paragraph which will immediately catch the attention of children:

"Perhaps you read this title twice, to make sure you had read it correctly. If the word history recalls only a memory of questions like 'What was the date of the Missouri Compromise?' or 'Who was vice-president with Millard Fillmore?' you may well ask what delight can have to do with it. If that is so, read on; I am writing expressly for you."

Imagine the child who would miss the humor of that first paragraph! And the teacher who fails to appreciate the paragraph may be lacking in a sense of humor.

Another chapter is called "Other People's Lives: How Biography Adds Them to Your Own." A third chapter is "Books for a World's-Eye View: Some Suggestions for Developing the International Mind." Every chapter is followed by a list of books for further reading. The lists include volumes of varying degrees of difficulty. Teachers may learn from May Lamberton Becker how to interest children in books, and librarians and parents should know it. Pupils will read it if it is called to their attention.

"The Socialization of Geography," by Grace Nolan, in the November number of *Education*, is a description of work developed with subnormal classes and with classes made up of boys enrolled in the mechanical arts courses. The projects were adapted to meet the interests of the pupils, and the subject-matter of history and science were utilized when necessary to develop the projects. Following a presentation of history materials, the writer raises the question: "It seems a bit of sociology, but are we not socializing geography?"

Jessie L. Duboe, of the State Normal School, Dillon, Montana, has prepared a series of articles, entitled, "History and Geography in Intermediate Grades." The first of the series was published in the September issue of *Normal Instructor* and *Primary Plans*, and each subsequent issue through January contains one article of the series.

The United States Bureau of Mines has recently announced that 46 titles of motion-picture films are now available for use of schools, colleges, and other organizations. Many of the titles are of immediate interest to social studies teachers. Films are loaned to schools, and are distributed from fourteen centers, located in all parts of the United States. There is no charge, but it is expected that transportation charges will be paid by the institutions that borrow the films. Write Bureau of Mines Experiment Station, Pittsburgh, Pa., for a list of titles and distributing centers.

Eda G. Willard, in the January issue of the *Education Bulletin* (Trenton, N. J., State Department of Public Instruction), contributes "Suggestions for 'Setting Up' Problems in History." Four problems on China, with suggestions concerning instruction, are presented, followed by a bibliography. The materials are intended for use at the junior high school level.

The Austrian Junior Red Cross has issued two sets of postcards from original drawings made by pupils in the Juvenile Art Class of Professor Cizek in Vienna. The cards contain captions in English. Prices: set of ten colored cards, 27 cents; ten sets, \$2.70, with one free set; 500 sets at rate of 22 cents per set. Persons interested should address correspondence to Austrian Junior Red Cross, Vienna I, Stubensengasse 1, accompanied by a check or money order.

The January issue of *The School Journal* (West Virginia) contains a brief article on "Sandtable Projects," by Sallie C. Jordan, of Point Pleasant, W. Va., in which the uses of the sand table in the teaching of geography and history in the primary grades are discussed. Two photographs of the projects are included.

Prof. R. E. Swindler, of Lynchburg College, is making an investigation of the high school library in American history. A detailed list of suitable books has been printed, with suggestions for the rating of the titles. The investigation is now going forward in the high schools of Virginia, and it will be carried forward in other states with the aid of interested teachers. Teachers who are willing to co-operate in a worthy investigation should write Prof. R. E. Swindler, 106 Park Place, University, Va.

Copies of announcements of the courses offered during the summer sessions of Clark University, Worcester, Mass., and the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y., have been received. The courses at Clark stress Geography and History, and at Syracuse the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, in co-operation with the social science departments, offers a wide range of courses. For information, write Prof. Douglas Ridgely, Director of Summer Session, Clark University, Worcester, Mass., and Prof. Wm. E. Mosher, Director of School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The Oxford History of the United States, 1783-1917. By S. E. Morison. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1927. Vol. I, xiv, 461 pp.; Vol. II, viii, 531 pp.

The last few years have witnessed a more widespread European interest in American history and Professor S. E. Morison, formerly Harmsworth Professor of American History at Oxford, has sought in these two volumes to introduce "British readers to the history of the United States" since 1783, to tell them "a story of intrinsic interest which may also serve to explain" the nation of today.

The first volume, covering a period of, roughly, sixty years, reaches down to about 1840, and has an excellent distribution of space and emphasis, although one could wish for more attention to the social history of this age which has been compressed into fifty pages. Through special studies Professor Morison is well qualified to write of this period, and his criticisms of conventional opinions, in both the text and footnotes, indicate a close acquaintance with the authorities, especially in the realm of Anglo-American diplomatic relations. In fact, the whole volume gives evidence of much careful workmanship and an easy familiarity with the material. The second volume, which purports to tell the story of nearly eighty years, is not up to the high standard of the first. To an American reader a disproportionate amount of space is devoted to the period of the Civil War and too little to the following years. Of course, it is well known that Great Britain has always been interested in our Civil War, but it is hard to believe that English readers want to know more of the battles and politics of these years than of other features of American life, over one hundred and fifty pages (mainly military history) of less than five hundred seem excessive. This poor balance is made more obvious when the whole period since the Civil War is accorded only one hundred and fifty pages. Undoubtedly, certain considerations had to be met in these volumes, e. g., an emphasis on those periods and events of American history when the contacts with Great Britain were closest, but a careful distribution of the remaining space would have assisted the English reader to gain a more accurate perspective.

Professor Morison has already given evidence of an ability to express himself in an interesting manner, and in this respect these volumes are no disappointment, his personal characterizations are often well drawn. The author also has an admirable faculty of linking up American history with European history. The novelty of many of his observations is stimulating; Philip Guedalla's inclusion of George III with the "Fathers" influenced perhaps the remark that Lord Sheffield was a "prime mover of the Federal Constitution" (I, 52). Some of his other statements and descriptions of personalities are debatable or actually misleading. Not all will agree that Van Buren was a "sly fox" (I, 383), or that Calhoun was a "tiresome figure," "and pernicious as well" (I, 389). In view of the usual understanding of what "pilgrim" signifies in American history, it is unwise to refer to John Cotton as "a pilgrim father" (I, 91). The Irish immigrants, I would rather believe, did not stay in the cities because they "were tired of farming" (I, 425), but because after their ocean voyage they had no money to buy land or even to get to the frontier. A suggestion of racial snobbishness is apparent in some sentences. Was it "the political common sense of English peoples" that prevented thought of a war of revenge by the South (II, 330-331)? Isn't it simpler to explain on the ground of complete exhaustion? "Civil War in Mexico, however, is not so serious a matter as in more

civilized countries" (II, 470); adding a few events of this nature together in a short time, as has happened in Mexico, would make it a serious matter. The bibliography chosen for British requirements omits Pratt, *Expansionists of 1812*, a rather curious omission. Also absent is Beard, *The Rise of American Civilization*, which accents economic factors conspicuously missing or denied in Morison's discussion of the Civil War and the Spanish-American War. It would also have been well to acquaint English readers with Parrington, *Main Currents in American Thought*, for it is advisable that Europeans learn of this more critical approach by Americans to their own history.

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College of the City of New York.

The Danish Sound Dues and the Command of the Baltic. By Charles E. Hill. Duke University Press, Durham, N. C., 1926. ix, 309 pp. \$4.00.

The author states in the preface that it is his purpose "to show the origin, the growth, the misfit, and the abolition of the Sound dues." The story he tells in developing these four main points covers some four hundred and fifty years—from the early part of the fourteenth century down to the final abolition of the dues in 1857—of primarily North European history. It is based in part upon research in the Royal Archives at Copenhagen, the British Museum, and the Bibliothèque Nationale. Also, it is the first book in English on the subject. Indeed, only two other works on the subject have appeared earlier, and of the three accounts Professor Hill's may safely be considered the most comprehensive. Both the nature of the subject and the treatment it receives at the hands of the author will in all probability secure for it a position of authority, and it is not likely that any other American or English investigator will attempt to challenge its position.

We go back over the road covered by the author and note that the earlier estimates of the origin of the dues have been erroneous. Drawing upon the work of two Danish scholars, Professor Hill is able to conclude that the dues "were under consideration in 1423, and they were levied by 1430" (p. 11). A few chapters of reading, which must be called laborious, enables us to follow the international rivalries which influenced, or were influenced by, the collection of the dues. The long opposition to them finally culminated in the international agreement, whereby Denmark accepted a reasonable capitalization of the dues (1857) and assumed the duty of keeping the Sound lighted and buoyed.

It would be an affectation to attempt to discover minor errors of fact in a work of this sort. Considering the book as a whole, the reviewer has been unable to escape the conclusion that Professor Hill has missed a fine opportunity in two ways. In the first place, students whose attention centres primarily or largely upon Northern Europe will fail to discover any suggestive interpretations or generalizations which would render the history of that part of Europe more intelligible or fascinating. On the other hand, the layman will almost certainly find it a laborious summary, devoid of all vitality. The reply to these objections is obviously to the effect that the sort of "utilitarianism" I am suggesting has no claim here, and, to a certain degree, it would be true.

As regards minor matters, it is to be regretted that the book contains an alarming number of errors in spelling; and that the bibliography is the source of a hundred vexations and perplexities, as anyone even moderately familiar with the history of Northern Europe will discover.

JOHN H. WUORINEN.

Columbia University.

The Spanish-American Frontier, 1783-1795. By Arthur Preston Whitaker. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1927. vii [6], 255 pp. Maps.

This volume, dedicated to Frederick Jackson Turner and supplementing to a certain extent Professor Paxson's *History of the American Frontier*, is the story of the westward movement and the Spanish retreat in the Mississippi valley. A second book is in preparation carrying to a conclusion the Spanish retreat from Louisiana and the Floridas. The writer was engaged on the present volume for two years, working principally in the archives of Spain, France, England, and the United States.

The jacket of the volume informs the prospective reader that the work includes a study of "Indian alliances and secession plots, land-jobbing schemes, and fur-trading interests, diplomacy at Madrid and Philadelphia, intrigue at New Orleans and Pensacola." In a word, the story is one of plot and counter-plot, in which two different civilizations are pitted against one another, and responsible and irresponsible Indians, traders, adventurers, and diplomats vie with each other in open and hidden intrigues. The climax comes, after twelve years, with the treaty of San Lorenzo, in 1795.

Dr. Whitaker points out that the Spanish-American conflict was a direct result of our Revolutionary War, for a vigorous republic had been created which would brook no interference with its destiny by the "unfortunate Spain" (p. 13). The conflict which ensued was between the English and Spanish systems, and was waged in both Europe and America by statesmen and frontiersmen. The result was the yielding of Spain. Her "defeat had in it something of the quality of a Greek tragedy, for a relentless hand seemed to drive the monarchy on to work its own destruction" (p. 14).

The author, with much force, shows that in the negotiations for the Mississippi valley procrastination was less an attribute of Spain than of the United States. Given time that great area would have been occupied by Americans in an overwhelming superiority of numbers. Spain, aware of this, entered into competition with the new Republic for colonists and began a political intrigue with American citizens already in the old Southwest. But her plans failed, due to an inherent defect in her colonial system and because of the greater persistence, daring, and venturesomeness of the American character. The treaty, which resulted in 1795, "appeased frontier discontent, gave a mortal blow to separatism, and secured the Union from a serious menace to its integrity. It completed the work begun by Jay's treaty, and established the frontier claimed by the United States at the end of the Revolution..." (p. 222).

This is a scholarly, concise, and interesting narrative. There are no notes at the foot of pages to trouble the average reader. (These are grouped by chapters at the end of the book.) The index is serviceable. Three maps add much to the understanding of the text. Throughout the work the author has proceeded logically. The stage is set, the actors are introduced, and the play begins and ends promptly. For the first time the story of this phase of the history of the Southwest is given in a unified picture, and in some instances a real contribution has been made to the field of American diplomacy.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

Patriots Off Their Pedestals. By Paul Wiltstach. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company. 241 pp.

No personalities in the field of American biography, with the one exception of Lincoln, are portrayed as often as the national leaders of the last quarter of the eighteenth century. The current flood of biography has given us several lives of Washington and one or more of a number of the other fathers. A healthy feature of some of them has been their serious attempts to present realistic accounts, uncolored by the characteristic glorification of earlier biographers. Some of them have erred in giving credence to questionable rumor, but their influence has

been in the direction of honest history. This volume, which contains essays on Washington, Franklin, Henry, Hamilton, John Adams, Jefferson, Marshall, and Madison, hardly belongs with that group. Mr. Wiltstach certainly is not a "debunker"; he removes no patriot from his pedestal; he aims only at the presentation of the unconventional, particularly of the humorous. On the whole, he has had little success in finding material of the kind sought. With two exceptions, each character mounted his pedestal while still in active life, carefully edited his letters and other revealing papers, and guarded his public and private utterances with both eyes upon posterity. Consequently, there is little of the Pepysian quality of intimacy in most of the essays.

Much of the material presented may be classified as interesting trifles, many of them entertaining, but few of them new. One essay differs in type from the rest. The discussion of Hamilton off his pedestal is distinctly subordinated to the author's attempt to reburnish a statue slightly corroded by the immense popularity of Bowers' *Jefferson and Hamilton*. It is more evidence of the permanence of lines of political thought that nearly every biographer who goes into this period for his material shows his partisanship in his product.

Mr. Wiltstach succeeds in making his series of portraits interesting. They are highly entertaining at times, and will do something to rid us of the superstition that the fathers differed essentially from the political leaders of other periods.

ELMER ELLIS.

State Normal School, Mayville, N. D.

Fort Wayne, Gateway of the West, 1802-1813: Garrison Orderly Books: Indian Agency Account Book. Edited by Bert J. Griswold. Indiana Library and Historical Department, Indianapolis, 1927. xii, 690 pp. Illus. maps.

This work is Volume XV of the *Indiana Historical Collections*. The editor has achieved something of a triumph, for he has succeeded in investing what is largely a source book with glamour and romance. The words of Little Turtle, in describing Fort Wayne as "that glorious gate," are successfully used as the motif of the scholarly and interesting introduction of eighty-three pages. The glamour and romance are not achieved by any sacrifice of reality or accuracy, but by a good organization, a clear style, and the proper welding of events. The geographical situation, the restless Indians, the fur traders, the turbulent garrison, the scheming for land cessions, the siege of the fort, and the slow approach of the modern day are recounted in dramatic succession. The intriguing Wells, the noble Little Turtle, the drunken Rhea, the efficient Johnston, and others shake off the dust of impersonality and rise into reality. The writer very properly draws upon his own admirable history of Fort Wayne, and upon Slocum, Brice, McAfee, and Harrison's writings, but he gleans many facts from the orderly books and account book.

The orderly books cover the period from 1802 to 1813. From them one may gain a vivid picture of the daily life of the garrison. Sleepy, slovenly, tardy, quarrelling, fighting, drunken soldiers, stolen cows, rumors of Indian outrages, movements of officers, "25 lashes on the bare back," "breaking into the Commandant's hen-house," "stabbing a calf," "ankle bolts," "to ride the wooden horse for one hour," "wear the wooden collar," and garrison orders succeed each other in unplanned succession. The divisions into administrations of different officers, the notes, and the complete index render the bewildering details accessible.

The Indian agency accounts are likewise useful, but not so interesting as the orderly books. The student of the history of transportation may secure some odd facts about the routing of shipments. The odd assortment of goods, with their many obsolete articles, are worth the scrutiny of the curious. Word-mongers might exercise themselves on the exact nature of stroud, froe, forget, mammodi, calimanco, rappee snuff, ferret, catty, Nankeen, baize, etc. The student of the fur trade may find some interesting lists and figures.

The editor has done such an unusual and thorough piece of work that adverse criticisms are almost in bad taste, but there is one which deserves correction. The part designated Indian Agency Account Book should never have been so called, even though that might be the designation on the documents themselves. So far as the reviewer has observed, not one single item relates to the Indian agency. They are all factory accounts. The editor knew the difference between factory and agency, for his note (p. 19) makes the distinction, but he was not aware that the two were separate and distinct systems. He mistakenly supposed (p. 23) that the factory was the avenue through which annuities were paid. The brief account of the factory system in Quaife's *Chicago and the Old Northwest*, 298-309, would have cleared up the confusion. The mistake is understandable when one recalls that Johnston was factor and agent at the same time. Only one other such instance occurred, so far as the reviewer knows. These accounts are Indian Factory Accounts, and it is unfortunate that they were not so designated.

The statement (p. 55) that the factory goods were moved into the fort before the siege does not apply to the entire stock, for furs and goods to the value of \$4000 were destroyed by the Indians (*American State Papers, Indian Affairs*, II, 59, 84). Since so much was given about Johnston and the factory system, it seems that his adverse opinion of the factory system should have been cited or even reproduced. It may be found in *ibid.*, II, 82. The Potawatomi chief (p. 51) was named Manpock, or perhaps Main Pocque, but the spelling Marpock is obviously an error.

The volume is a credit to Fort Wayne, and the city which possesses such a reliable record of its early days may account itself fortunate. The painstaking work of the director and his assistants has resulted in the almost complete elimination of minor errors. They deserve commendation, and the reviewer cannot omit a lament at the passing of the editor, who died before his work was entirely completed.

EDGAR B. WESLEY.

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A History of Europe: The Middle Ages. By Irene L. Plunket. *Europe and the Modern World, 1492 to 1914.* By R. B. Mowat. Oxford University Press: American Branch, New York, 1927. xix, 805 pp. \$3.00. Also published separately. \$1.50 each.

History of Europe (1492-1815). By Chester Penn Higby, Ph. D. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1927. xi, 479 pp.

If the possession of an entertaining style be considered a primary requisite in a history of the Middle Ages, Miss Plunket's work merits high praise. The author has produced a survey of Medieval Europe which does not contain a dull page.

In a few instances, however, Miss Plunket's book betrays the failure to take advantage of the results of modern research. In view of the investigations of Dr. Harnack in Germany and Dr. McGiffert in the United States, it is incorrect to speak of the "Apostles' Creed" as a summary of the "principle doctrines" of the Catholic faith. Drawn up to combat heresy, the "Apostles' Creed" merely emphasizes points of doctrine which the heretics denied. The legend of Constantine's vision of the *Labarum* emblazoned on the sky is narrated as if it were sober history. The author maintains the old-fashioned view of Roger Bacon's scientific pre-eminence, as well as the idea that he was condemned and imprisoned as a magician. The former is inaccurate, the latter improbable, as Professor Lynn Thorndike has convincingly shown. The impression that one obtains from page 339, that the Commercial Revolution took place as a result of the closing of the old trade routes by the Turks needs modification. Professor A. H. Lybyer has demonstrated that the discovery of new trade routes constituted a quite independent movement. On page 342 we find a reflection of the old view that Columbus, by his voyage, sought to contradict the view of many people who "still believed that the world was flat," whereas recent

research indicates that educated opinion in the Middle Ages quite universally thought of the world as round.

But the main fault with Miss Plunket's book is that it is predominantly political. One can glean in her pages, it is true, many hints concerning the condition of the lower classes; but one does not find any chapters exclusively devoted to a description of social life. The rise of towns, the organization of medieval industry, and the revival of commerce do not receive the emphasis that their importance demands. Since Miss Eileen Power and Doctor G. G. Coulton have made a knowledge of social life of the Middle Ages so accessible, such an omission is inexcusable. The reader regrets that the author has not employed the skill with which she has portrayed Charlemagne and many another political hero to depict more completely the life of the serf, the burgher, and the artisan. For instance, one could dispense with the detailed description of the unedifying career of the Angevin monarchs in Naples, but would like to know more of the people over whom they ruled.

The discussion of medieval art and learning is also inadequate. The brevity of the descriptions of architecture and of the content of medieval learning contrasts sharply with the amount of space devoted to monarchs. The book is not well balanced.

Mowat's *Europe and the Modern World*, which continues Miss Plunket's narrative through modern times, is purely a political history, with rather fragmentary accounts of literature and art sandwiched in. Like the historical writers of the Middle Ages, the author is not interested in the common people. His attention is centered upon monarchs and their court life, upon wars and politics. To him modern history seems to consist of the dynasties of rulers and their sordid struggles. Typical of his book is the lengthy quotation from Voltaire's *Candide*, describing the chance meeting of five exiled monarchs at Venice. A despot such as Peter the Great of Russia is exalted as a "benignant power," with never a word of his crimes or revolting cruelty. No credit is extended to the people of Russia, but all is showered upon Tsardom. "The history of modern Russia is the history of the Tsardom which, through its widespread bureaucracy, brought order and civilization into Russia...." Murders of Russian officials at the hands of assassins are termed "atrocious," whereas not a word is said about wholesale massacres of the populace, such as that before the Winter Palace in 1905. "The Tsarist régime, as it was organized by Peter the Great, and as it existed until the reign of Nicholas II, made Russia (which was obviously a very difficult country to govern) a finely efficient and progressive state. People were more free than is probably usually understood." Evidently the author is suffering from an anti-Soviet "complex."

In keeping with the author's aristocratic bias, the evils of eighteenth-century society are minimized. "It is not true," he asserts, "to say that there was no career open to talent until the French Revolution cleared the way. The numerous courts of Italy and Germany attracted talent from every class, high or low." "Indeed, the generous attitude of eighteenth-century monarchs toward 'new men' made, in some ways, the rise of talent too easy." "The influence of little courts on eighteenth-century civilization was enormous." Bare mention is made of the reformers Oglethorpe, John Howard, and Beccaria, who attacked the barbarity of the criminal codes of the eighteenth century; but, instead of describing their denunciations of crying abuses, the author declares: "It is possible....to go too far in leniency towards criminals, for there is a volcano of lust and disorder below the apparently fine crust of human society"; and then he proceeds to retail a page of quotation from Joseph de Maistre's glorification of the executioner as a benefactor of society.

Of the rise of capitalism, of the industrial revolution, and of the creation of a vast proletariat one may find hints in Mr. Mowat's work, but never description. In reading this work one scarcely becomes aware of the great transformation of modern society that these movements have brought. One chapter, indeed, is devoted to Socialism in the nineteenth century, and contains brief accounts of

Marx, Ferdinand Lassalle, Proudhon, Louis Blanc, Jaurès, and others. But the real meaning of socialism as a protest against the evils brought by the Industrial Revolution is not made clear. Socialists are presented as misguided individuals, whose sole object is to make trouble for the established order. The transformation and development of agriculture from the eighteenth century on in order to meet the new demands of an industrial society are likewise passed over in silence.

The treatment of the intellectual development of modern society is equally unsatisfactory. There are brief accounts of art, as well as vignettes of Machiavelli, Rabelais, Montaigne, Grotius, Goethe, Kant—to mention a few of the outstanding names; but the rise and development of modern science does not come within the author's purview. Part of one chapter is devoted to the *Intellectual Outlook* in the middle of the nineteenth century, but it is chiefly an account of novelists, no mention being made of Darwin, Lyell, Mendel, Pasteur, or any other scientists whose activity has transformed man's outlook or promoted his well-being.

The author makes much of the unification of the world and consequently he feels obliged to give accounts of the United States, Latin-America, and the Far East. But of the economic and social interaction of the New World and the Old he has no just appreciation. Europe to him is and "will probably always remain the social center of the world." "The creation of independent states on the American Continent was, from one point of view, a step backwards: that is to say, it severed the political ties between Europe and the New World, and only increased the already existing international anarchy."

Finally, the author is still suffering from his anti-German war "complex." He minimizes German intellectual and scientific achievement in the twentieth century; and he has been unable adequately to appreciate the new evidence that has been brought to light concerning the origins of the war. Germany to him still remains the chief culprit. All things taken into consideration, Mr. Mowat has presented us with a thoroughly antiquated history of the Modern World.

Professor Higby's *History of Europe* is presented to the public as a textbook, "planned as an introduction to the History of Europe between the opening of the modern period and the close of the Napoleonic period." It begins with a survey of political and social conditions at the opening of the sixteenth century and closes with a similar survey of those obtaining in 1815. The style is in the main readable, although sometimes revealing a lack of polish, which occasionally approaches awkwardness or degenerates into colloquialism. For instance, on page 352, when the author desires to describe Louis XVI's change of mind, he says: "The King reversed himself." On page 362, the rediision of parishes by the National Assembly is thus described: "Parish lines, also, were to be run again in order to make them conform to modern conditions." And, again, on page 370, "the Legislative Assembly passed two decrees designed...to finish with the refractory priests."

There are a few minor details with which one can find fault in this book. In view of the fact that gun powder was known in Europe in the thirteenth century, was used in battle as early as 1346, becoming increasingly common in the latter part of the fourteenth and throughout the fifteenth century, it is misleading to speak of it as, in 1500, "introduced recently." The author refers to Luther as entering a monastery "for reasons that are not very well understood"; yet Luther's step in adopting the monastic vocation is just as comprehensible as that of any other medieval person, and is so explained in the best biographies. When one remembers the career of Adelard of Bath in the twelfth century, one is astonished to read that the "revival of science began in the thirteenth century with the work of Roger Bacon." In view of Professor Lynn Thorndike's researches, it is misleading to say that "Roger Bacon made important discoveries in physics and chemistry." The assertion, on page 105, that "all the precedents of the Church" prevented the Pope from granting Henry

VIII an annulment of his marriage is inaccurate. There were such precedents. (Cf. Lindsay, T. M., *History of the Reformation*, ii, p. 324.) Nor had Popes always been careful not to revoke decisions of their predecessors, as the revocation by John XXII of Nicholas III's decree affirming the poverty of Christ shows. It is neither accurate nor scientific to say that "Mary Tudor died in 1558 of a broken heart."

Again, the reader is impressed with the omissions in this work. In the description of the "Anglican Revolt" against Rome, Cranmer is not mentioned; and yet one would think that he was worthy of mention for his influence on the *Prayer Book* if for no other reason. The names of Machiavelli, Rabelais, Montaigne, Hobbes, and Grotius do not even appear. One of the most attractive chapters is that entitled, "The Intellectual Revolt Against Authority"; and yet here, too, there are serious omissions. David Hume was probably one of the most important figures in the eighteenth-century revolt against authority in religion. In his essays *On Miracles* and *On Providence and a Future State* he advanced arguments that have never been successfully refuted. But Hume is not mentioned. Moreover, Kant, whose *Religion Within the Bounds of Mere Reason* is one of the finest examples of the intellectual revolt, is not mentioned until the author surveys intellectual conditions in 1815. To attempt to describe, no matter how briefly, the intellectual revolt against authority in the eighteenth century without mentioning Hume and Kant is little short of absurd.

Apart from such shortcomings, there is much in Professor Higby's book that merits approval. The balance has been well preserved between intellectual, social, religious, and political history. The accounts of the rise of modern science, of the Industrial and Agricultural Revolutions, and of the French Revolution are particularly good. The author has admirably succeeded in fulfilling his intention of keeping himself free from bias. If one is searching for a survey of Modern European History, which, aside from the limitations noted above, is sound, impartial, readably written, and comprehensive, then Professor Higby's book is to be recommended. It cannot be said, however, to supersede many works that have already covered the field.

Ross W. COLLINS.

Syracuse University.

Robespierre. A Study. By Hilaire Belloc. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1927. xxi, 417 pp.
Talleyrand. The Training of a Statesman, 1754-1838. By Anna Bowman Dodd. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1927. xiii, 531 pp.
Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria-King of Hungary. By Eugene Bagger. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1927. xxiii, 572 pp.

The house of Putnam has long been known for its distinctive publications in the field of biography. The three volumes here reviewed are in keeping with earlier publications of their kind. All three are written by competent authorities who have literary gifts, all three are liberally illustrated, and measure up to their predecessors in excellency in the art of bookmaking.

Mr. Belloc's volume on Robespierre is not new. It was first published in London in 1901, when the author was only thirty years of age; it was warmly received. Since that time the whole French Revolutionary era has been reinterpreted. Mr. Belloc is fully aware of that fact and

PATRIOTIC CITIZENS

should possess a large beautiful framed copy of the Constitution of the United States (with 19 amendments). Appropriate for and dignifies both office and home. The general make-up and quality of paper results in a beautiful, high-class, and lasting appointment when displayed. Size 25x30. Mailed upon receipt of check. Unframed, \$2.25. Framed, \$6.50. Charges prepaid. Order while they last at this price. Legal Pub. Co., 716—11th St. N. W., Washington, D. C. [Dept. 66.]

in the preface to the present edition he acknowledges that were he writing the volume today some of his conclusions might be very different. But such conclusions, one gathers, would not materially alter the picture of Robespierre or the part he played in that titanic struggle that man might be freed from the shackles of the old régime.

The volume on Talleyrand is divided into two parts. The first, entitled, "The Training of a Statesman," carries the story of his life to the time of Napoleon's downfall. Part two, which overlaps part one to some degree, tells the story of Talleyrand's marriage, his later years, his conversion, and death. While the author of the volume would not perhaps accept the verdict of the more thoughtful and scholarly of the historical guild that Talleyrand was the "Prince of Liars," she by no means presents a one-sided picture. In her opinion, he was as a man lovable, as a statesman unrivaled in his powers of discernment and adjustment of subtle difficulties, as a patriot above sectional, partisan views. But, on the other hand, she admits that there was something lacking in his make-up that caused him to be a disillusioned cynic. There was lacking in him, too, that stability of character which inspired confidence. Priest, skeptic, conspirator, libertine, alleged murderer—all this and more is set forth in a lucid style. Mrs. Dodd's account of Talleyrand's last years brings out in bold relief the Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde sides of his tumultuous life, for he not only lived but figured prominently under five Bourbon kings, the Consulate, the Empire of Napoleon, and the hectic days of the Revolution.

Of the three portraiture here reviewed, Mr. Bagger's is by all odds the best. In his preface he tells us that his purpose is to interpret, not to muckrake and disclose, and to this rule he has rigidly adhered. In tracing the long life of Francis Joseph—a life that linked up the eighteenth century with the twentieth—Mr. Bagger has written a masterly and highly informative account of the last seventy-five years of Austria-Hungary's history. One who reads this biography is impressed with the unbending conservatism of the chief actor. Francis Joseph looked not forward but backward. He hated innovation and loved the traditional. He forbade the installation of modern plumbing in the imperial apartments; he never used a telephone, tabooed elevators and automobiles, wore clothes in accordance with the prevailing styles of 1800, and insisted that the women of his household dress accordingly. It was his conservatism, too, that caused him to ignore democracy and to resent and resist every suggestion for reform of any sort. Indeed, Mr. Bagger skillfully shows how Francis Joseph's stubborn refusal to adjust himself and his empire to the changing conditions led ultimately to the destruction of the Austro-Hungarian State.

The Relation of Nature to Man in Aboriginal America.
By Clark Wissler. Oxford University Press, New York, 1926. xx, 248 pp. Illustrated.

When an authority speaks the world listens. Clark Wissler is an anthropologist of wide note, and the material comprising this volume follows closely the contents of a number of illustrated lectures delivered at the Free Institute of Science at Philadelphia in February, 1924. These studies deal with the distribution of American Indian traits, aboriginal geography, and ecology. They are thus less descriptive and historical than geographical.

The underlying principle here expounded is that "the relation between man and nature is fundamental and at no time can he break the bond" (p. xi). Aboriginal man is more directly dependent upon natural phenomena than civilized man. To illustrate this conclusion, Dr. Wissler chooses pre-historic America as the stage for his actors. The western hemisphere forms geographically an ideal setting for primitive man who, it is asserted, achieved what he did "in splendid isolation." Here he developed certain customs which were geographically distributed as regards space and time. The anthropologist seeks examples of this distribution and shows their relationships. When placed on a map these are usually pictured as "patches," frequently overlapping or overlying each other. Moreover,

centers of diffusion of customs can often be found by the scientist which aid him in the study of those migrations that usually cause the spread of traits.

Regarding the American Indian particularly and the dispersion of customs, Dr. Wissler points out certain traits and examines their geographical distribution in order to acquire "a truer view of the Indian problem," and for the purpose of understanding "the part geography has played in his evolution." Thus we "come one step nearer an insight into the geographical basis to our own career in this land of the aboriginal Indian."

The writer has told his interesting story in five chapters, with the aid of numerous sketches, maps, and charts. The results, for one who takes the time to examine this book, are an introduction into the breadths and depths of anthropology and the better understanding of one phase of the background of American history. For the serious reader an appendix, a bibliography, and an index greatly add to the value of the work.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

Book Notes

Ancient and Medieval History. By Maude D. Kivlen. Oxford Book Company, New York, 1927. iv, 173 pp.

Modern History. By Maude D. Kivlen. Oxford Book Company, New York, 1925. iv, 166 pp.

American History and Government. By S. D. Moss. Oxford Book Company, New York, 1926. iv, 158 pp.

These three little volumes are part of the Oxford Review Series, which are designed to give perspective and organization to the various high school and college preparatory studies. The authors of the books in the series have had many years of actual classroom experience and are known for their ability to summarize the material in their respective specialties concisely and accurately. The aim of each of the volumes is to present a comprehensive, accurate, and pedagogically sound review of the particular subject treated. In each of the volumes here reviewed the topical method of presentation is adopted. Essentials only are emphasized and the material is presented in simple, clear language. Each topic chapter is followed by questions which have been carefully culled from various sources. Lists of important dates, personages, and places are also included, as well as specimen examination questions selected from College Entrance and New York State Regents' papers.

Both students and teachers of history ought to find these volumes of service.

The World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, pioneers in the publishing of objective tests, have within the last two years brought out two such tests, which merit the careful consideration of teachers of social science.

The first of these, the *Brown-Woody Civics Test*, prepared by Arnold W. Brown and Clifford Woody for use in grades seven to twelve, was designed to obtain an objective measurement of the achievement of students in civics. It consists of three parts: Part I is a test in civic vocabulary of forty words, which are necessary for intelligent reading and understanding of civics, arranged in the form of an alternate answer test. Part II is a test of civic information, which consists of eighty "yes or no" questions, covering the various units of government. Part III is a test of civic thinking, consisting of nine exercises, which provide for the application of civic principles to practical civic situations. The test as a whole is essentially diagnostic in character. By its application the teacher will be greatly assisted in determining the student's ability in civics, and consequently will be able to meet the outstanding needs of the student with the most effective and efficient instruction.

The second, one of the Columbia Research Bureau Series, *An American History Test, Forms A and B*, prepared by Harry J. Carman, Thomas N. Barrows, and Ben D. Wood,

was designed to provide colleges and high schools with more reliable, valid, and comparable measures of achievement in American history than are afforded by the usual history examination. The test is designed to be representative of the various aspects of American history which are approved by the best available authorities. The questions all demand a thorough and wide grounding in the facts of history, but a large proportion of them also require reasoning ability and discriminating judgment. The test, therefore, is not merely a test of memorized facts, but of ability to make sound judgments and penetrating inferences from concrete facts.

Apportionments of the questions were agreed upon in advance for the following divisions: political, social, economic, religious, and educational. Apportionments of numbers of questions were also made in advance as to the various periods of American history. Thus, 50 per cent. of the questions relate to post-Civil War times. Roughly, half of the questions deal primarily with what historians call political material, but even in the questions which we have classed as political there is a considerable fringe of social, economic, geographical, and chronological material. About 15 per cent. of the questions are primarily social, about 25 per cent. are economic, and about 10 per cent. are religious and educational in nature.

Each form of the test consists of four parts, as follows: Part I, 80 true-false statements; Part II, 50 matching items; Part III, 50 five-response multiple-choice questions; and Part IV, 20 completion sentences. Each form of the test, therefore, includes a sampling of 200 important facts, relations, and judgments in American history. The scoring of the students' responses to these 200 history problems is entirely objective. Manuals giving full directions for use are furnished with each test.

Samuel Kelley, An Eighteenth-Century Seaman, is a narrative constructed, from diaries more than a hundred years old, by Crosbie Garstin, who edits the volume and tells in his interesting introduction of the survival of Kelley's huge manuscripts in an old bureau drawer in Cornwall, and the editor's task in eliminating the worthy sailor's tedious moralizings and long Biblical quotations. As it stands, the book gives a very picturesque and instructive picture of the British merchant marine in the late eighteenth century, days when French and American privateers roved the seas, slavers plied their trade, and the old square-riggers lumbered slowly through stormy seas. Kelley describes one voyage from Liverpool to New York which required seventeen weeks. The diarist first went to sea in 1778, at the age of 14, and in due time became a chief mate and finally a captain. He here records his life day by day, picturing both the routine and the special adventures at sea, telling of cargoes carried and of ports visited, including Philadelphia and New York. It is a quaint and interesting piece of primary source material for the teacher of history. There are 24 illustrations from old prints. (F. A. Stokes & Co., New York. 320 pp. \$5.00.)—G.

In the very decided tendency to stress social and economic factors in the writing and teaching of history in recent years one is impressed with the increasing attention paid to agriculture. Among those who have been especially instrumental in arousing an interest in this particular field is Professor N. S. B. Gras. His volume, *A History of Agriculture in Europe and America* (F. D. Crofts & Company, New York, 1925. xxvii, 444 pp.), is not and was not intended to be a detailed history of agriculture. Rather, the author has presented the basic features or framework of some of the more important developments in the history of rural life in Europe and America. After a brief introductory chapter, in which he discusses the general steps of economic development, the author describes the early stages of agriculture, Roman agrarian economy, the medieval manor, the various European peasant revolts, the development of metropolitan and national economy in each, modern times and its influence on agriculture, the enclosure movement and the agricultural revolution in England, the Physiocrats and the story of property in

land. The last five chapters deal with American agriculture: stages in American agriculture, annual husbandry, various types of American rural life and organization, the factors in agricultural development and the results of that development on American civilization. The book, which is intended for both the student and general reader, is equipped with bibliographical notes and with suggestions for further study.

During the last two decades much has been said and written about the Monroe Doctrine—its inception, metamorphosis, and present status. Now comes another book on the subject, *The Monroe Doctrine, 1823-1826* (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1927. xi, 280 pp.), by Professor Dexter Perkins of Rochester University. In his prefatory note the author explains why, in his opinion, this additional volume is justified. To any one acquainted with the secondary literature on the subject and who reads this volume no apology or justification is necessary, for the author has produced what is by all odds the best account yet written on the beginnings and early history of the Monroe Doctrine. Indeed, so well has he performed his task that it would seem that the historical world might regard it as definitive as it ever regards anything. In other words, without seeking to overpraise, Professor Perkins has turned out an extremely scholarly book.

Not content to follow the beaten track, he has viewed his subject not alone from the American angle, and has therefore ransacked the libraries on both sides of the Atlantic for new materials. The result is a newer and fuller interpretation. Among many others, one thing in particular impresses the reader; namely, that at the time of its origin few people either in Europe or in America paid much heed to the Doctrine. Moreover, the Doctrine during these years apparently had little influence on the policy of Continental Europe.

All persons interested in the history of the Monroe Doctrine are under deep obligations to Professor Perkins for this work.

One of the most important contributions to the *Records of Civilization. Sources and Studies*, published by the Columbia University Press, is *The See of Peter* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1927. xxvi, 737 pp.), by James T. Shotwell and Louise Ropes Loomis. Strange as it may seem the texts, although few in number, upon which the Papacy rests its claims and asserts its great prerogatives, have not up to this time been translated into English and collected and evaluated. But, as the authors of this volume point out, every one of these texts has been and still is the object of controversy, and this fact in itself may help to account for the long delay on the part of

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English-speaking scholars in undertaking the task, which has now been performed so admirably.

In the first third of the volume under review the authors have collected all the texts which form the basis for the belief in Peter's primacy and in his institution of the Roman bishopric. These texts are divided into three parts. The first includes those in the New Testament, which throw light upon the extent of Peter's pre-eminence among the apostles and the scope of his later labors. The second contains all historical references to Peter's sojourn and stay in Rome that can be found in the Greek and Latin Fathers down to the fifth century. The third part comprises the popular apocryphal literature, which grew up around the figure of Peter almost as soon as reliable records began. As might be expected, much of this literature is either purely fictitious or a confused mass of truth and falsehood.

The remainder of the volume contains the texts which show, step by step, the development of the early Papacy. These are also divided into three groups. First, a collection in the main of random sentences and incidental allusions covering the first two centuries which refer to the bishops of Rome. The second group carries the story of the Roman see to the reign of Constantine, while the third portrays the Popes of the fourth century. Incidentally, this last group comprises about one-third of the volume.

The volume contains a general introduction and fairly lengthy introductions also preface its two main parts. From a scholarly point of view, the book is a classic. The publishers also are to be complimented on the general make-up of the volume.

As prime mover in the formation of the Czechoslovak Republic and as its first President, Dr. Masaryk would seem eminently qualified to discourse upon the making of that State. But his volume of *Memories and Observations* of the years from 1914 to 1918, entitled, *The Making of a State* (Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York, 1927. 518 pp.), is much more than a chronicle of the formation of Czechoslovakia. Henry Wickham Steed in the Introduction opines that the book may be "a monument inadvertently raised by Masaryk to himself." Masaryk, the "philosopher-historian, whom fate made a constructive statesman." And a monument it may be, but not an inadvertent one. Masaryk says he was "always active: a worker." He "always conceived as a world-problem" the Czech question. He was "well-informed of Austrian military designs." He was convinced that "their outward orderliness and their mechanical precision" rendered the Germans "militarily weaker than the French." The origin and development of the World War show plainly, he thinks, that it was a "world war." He admits that not all "German philosophy or all German thought is dubious." Nor is it all "feeble, superficial, and uninteresting." "The problem of humanity" being "a specifically Czech problem," the book has a lot to say about Comenius the Educator, the Bohemian Brotherhood, and Democracy—"the political form of the humane ideal." As literature, philosophy, and autobiography, *The Making of a State* may have some merit. As a "monumental contribution to public knowledge of the World War, its causes, and its consequences" (for such the publishers claim it to be), it falls rather flat.

To his monumental work, *A History of the People of the United States from the Revolution to the Civil War*, the last volume of which appeared in 1913, Professor John Bach McMaster has now added another volume, *A History of the People of the United States During Lincoln's Administration* (D. Appleton and Company, New York and London, 1927. xxxi, 693 pp.). Those familiar with the author's earlier work will find the present volume a worthy addition. Employing the same methods used in the preparation of its predecessors, the author covers fully the great events of the Civil War period. Even more important, he indicates in greatest detail how these events affected the public—North and South—and how the public affected them. Like its predecessors, too, the material for the present volume is drawn for the most part from contem-

porary newspapers, letters, diaries, memoirs, and other similar sources. While the greater part of the work under review is political in nature, Professor McMaster has followed the scheme which featured the earlier volumes of his celebrated work, i. e., inserting chapters dealing with social, economic, and intellectual conditions both North and South. All those who own or who have read the earlier volume will want this book.

Under the editorship of Mark Van Doren the Macy-Masius Company are bringing out An American Bookshelf Series. The first two volumes, *Samuel Sewall's Diary* (272 pages) and *A History of the Life and Death, Virtues and Exploits of General George Washington*, by Parson Weems (364 pages), appeared last year. The idea back of the series is to interest the reader in American literature of the past by bringing to his attention interesting and entertaining but little-known books. The series, when complete, aims to span the history of the literature of the American people from Colonial times to the present. The Sewall Diary is an abridgment of that celebrated New Englander's more lengthy diary, which was first published in three volumes by the Massachusetts Historical Society just about half a century ago. In selecting his material the editor has been at pains to stress the more racy, outstanding features of Sewall's long narrative.

Parson Weems' volume on Washington, which has been so severely criticized in recent years by the so-called new school of biographers, first appeared in 1800. It, more than any other agency, was undoubtedly responsible for the Washington legend which is still firmly imbedded in the minds of the vast majority of America's millions. It was enlarged in 1806 and went through dozens of editions, and it is from one of these later editions that the volume under review was taken. The chief merit of the present volume is that it serves to preserve this legendary account of Washington. The teacher of history might well use it as illustrative material for showing how biography should not be written.

Both volumes are bound in attractive format.

Although military history is out of style, it is profitable to remember occasionally that wars do occur, and that some knowledge of them is not entirely amiss. Major Robert Arthur's *The Sieges of Yorktown, 1781 and 1862* (The Bookshop, Fort Monroe, Va., 1927. 63 pp. Illus. 7 maps, appendix), may sound technical and forbidding, but in reality it is interesting and profitable. The general situation preceding the sieges is given, and the progress of the armies clearly presented. The account of Cornwallis's surrender is particularly vivid. The fact that the French suffered a greater loss than the Americans is not generally recognized. McClellan's reputation is none the higher for Major Arthur's examination of his activity at Yorktown in 1862. The appendix gives the divisions and their commanders. It is a profitable and readable booklet, and its illustrations and maps might well be the envy of the authors of more pretentious volumes.—EDGAR B. WESLEY.

An Economic History of England, by Charlotte M. Waters (Oxford University Press, London, 1925. xvi, 610 pp.), is an excellent textbook, designed primarily for use in secondary schools. It covers the period from the middle of the eleventh century to the year 1874. Somewhat more than half of the text is devoted to the period before 1750. The matter of the book is based on well-known standard histories and several monographs on special subjects. A welcome innovation is the inclusion of considerable information as regards the position of women at different periods. The material is throughout well digested and the manner of presentation is clear and succinct. Well over two hundred excellent, wisely chosen illustrations add to the value of the book. To its offerings must be added the brief classified bibliographies and a satisfactory index. In short, we have here a textbook which is well suited for use in classes on the social and economic history of England.—J. H. W.

Those interested in the movement for conservation of natural resources will greatly profit by reading *The Ballinger-Pinchot Controversy* (Smith College Studies in History, Vol. XI, No. 2. Northampton, Mass., 1926. 69-138 pp.), by Rose Mildred Stahl. After a brief summary of the conservation movement, Miss Stahl traces in considerable detail the outstanding features in the controversy between President Taft's conservative Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Ballinger, and Gifford Pinchot, Chief Forester, close friend of Theodore Roosevelt and ardent champion of his policies. The study is based for the most part on source material and constitutes a real contribution to the literature of recent American history.

From both a literary and historical point of view Mary Alice Wyman's *Two American Pioneers, Seba Smith and Elizabeth Oakes Smith* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1927. viii, 249 pp.), is a valuable addition to the literature of the Jacksonian era. Seba Smith was one of the outstanding early American humorists and the author of the famous Jack Downing letters, whose authorship was for a time seriously disputed. His wife, Elizabeth Oakes Smith, was an early advocate of the emancipation of women and carved an enviable career for herself as writer, lecturer, and reformer. It is with the story of the lives of these two persons that Miss Wyman's volume is concerned. No student of American social history should fail to read it.

Parents and teachers of the prospective college boy, as well as the boy himself, will find a fount of useful and stimulating advice in *College—What's the Use?* (Doubleday, Page and Company, New York, 1927. vii, 143 pp.), by Herbert E. Hawkes, Dean of Columbia College. For many years Dean Hawkes has had unusual opportunity to know intimately thousands of college men. In fact, his office is a sort of clearing-house to which young men come with their many problems. This volume, therefore, is not based on theoretical considerations, but on daily experience and practical observations. In it the author discusses why boys go to college, what parents and teachers should do to help fit them for college, why some fall by the wayside, what the financial handicaps are, athletics, fraternities, religion and the college boy, college pranks, and discipline. In the chapters "Picking the Winners" and "Half-baked Education," Dean Hawkes takes occasion to condemn superficial education and to indicate the newer methods employed by some of our colleges in selecting their material and in developing it to the fullest capacity. In answering his own question, "What's the Use?" Dean Hawkes propounds the following: "The ideas, methods, and information acquired, the introduction into the realm of the true and the beautiful, the friendships formed in fraternity houses, on the athletic field, and in the classroom, the ability to analyze and to evaluate one's own conduct contribute each, in its appropriate way, to the great enterprise of living. These elements the college tries to present to its students."

Howard C. Hill's *Roosevelt and the Caribbean* (The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1927. xi, 233 pp.) is a courageous attempt to evaluate the part played by President Roosevelt in extending the dominion of the United States in the Caribbean area. The first two chapters of the monograph are devoted respectively to the passing of our national isolation and to the rise of Roosevelt. Then follow chapters on the taking of Panama, our relations with Cuba during Roosevelt's administration, the Venezuelan crisis, the collection of debts in the Caribbean area, and mediation in Central America. In his last chapter, entitled, "Rooseveltian Imperialism," the author passes judgment on the late President's imperialistic actions. Based on what happened in the Caribbean, he is of the opinion that Rooseveltian imperialism was not planned or predetermined, but purely opportunistic, and that he had no notion of just where his acts would lead. At the same time he frankly admits that Roosevelt was extremely nationalistic and swept aside any obstacle that stood in the way of the needs of national self-defense. He admits, too,



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that Roosevelt was influenced by economic questions. In this connection he says that he has been unable to unearth any evidence that either his measures or his actions were determined by or were the result of economic considerations. Despite this statement it is difficult to see how Mr. Roosevelt, or any one else, for that matter, could draw a line between the political and economic phases of imperialism. The volume is based almost entirely on source material.

The second volume of the *Minutes of the Albany Committee of Correspondence, 1775-1778—Minutes of the Schenectady Committee, 1775-1779, and Index* (Division of Archives and History, The University of the State of New York, Albany, 1925. Pp. 1005-1283) contains, as the title implies, the minutes of the Schenectady district committee, whose activities were almost as multitudinous as those of the Albany committee. The present volume has been edited by Peter Nelson, Assistant State Historian, which in itself insures a thorough and scholarly work.

The Young Folks' Book of Invention, by T. C. Bridges, is a sketchy history in journalistic style by an industrious writer of juveniles on varied themes. The stock anecdotes and traditions, however worn and dubious, do service again, and, while much interesting information is given, there are serious gaps, and little understanding of the fundamental significance of invention in human history is revealed. The hundred or more pictures include many of interest and value, but also some fanciful scenes. There is no index. (Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1926. 287 pp. \$2.00.) *A Bird's-Eye View of Invention*, by A. Frederick Collins, inventor and author of more than fifty books on invention, handicrafts, and popular science, contains more substance, though written in less colloquial style. Beginning with units of measurement and the invention of calculating and recording machines, the author proceeds through nineteen chapters to sketch the history of all types of invention in clear and convenient summaries. The nu-

merous illustrations are half-tone reproductions from photographs of Patent Office models or finished machines and implements. Full indexes of names and subjects are included, but there is no list of illustrations. (T. Y. Crowell Co., New York, 1926. 313 pp. \$2.00.)—G.

The Immigration Problem, by Professors Jenks and Lauck, based on the researches of the Immigration Commission, with which both authors were associated, has been recognized as a standard treatise since its first appearance in 1911 and now appears in a sixth edition, revised and extended by Professor R. D. Smith, who performed the same service for the fifth edition. New chapters have been added, including those treating race problems in the Pacific, the recent immigration laws of the United States, and immigration legislation in foreign countries. The findings of the 1920 census have been incorporated and other revisions of detail have been made. Several chapters are specifically historical and much historical information is scattered through the other portions of the book. The valuable appendices are continued and extended, including among other items the text of the Immigration Acts of 1917 and 1924, with new statistical matter; in all, 250 pages of documents, tables, and charts. There is an annotated bibliography and an index. (Funk and Wagnalls Co., New York, 1926. 717 pp. \$4.00.)

There is no other history of the American steamboat presented on the plan of Fred Erving Dayton's *Steamboat Days* (F. A. Stokes, New York, 1925). No general narrative or interpretation is attempted, but the author gives a simple, direct statement about steamers and companies on the Hudson, the Chesapeake, and other inland waters, describing many of the steamers in detail as to dimensions, tonnage, speed, power, and fittings, with a few words about the career of each. Nearly 100 pen-and-ink drawings by John Wolcott Adams add greatly to the attractiveness and value of the book. The absence of an index is a serious defect.

ELECTORAL VOTE in PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS 1788-1924

A table will be printed in the May number of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK giving the vote by states in each of the presidential campaigns from the first in 1788-9 to 1924. Such data will be found scattered through Stanwood's *History of the Presidency* (2 vols.), and in other places, but rarely have all the facts been brought together into one table. The figures will prove useful in the preparation of charts and maps showing the distribution of party support throughout the Union.

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Physics and Politics: an Old Analogy Revised. William B. Munro (*American Political Science Review*, February). Presidential address.

Reality in History. George E. Anderson (*Commonweal*, February 15).

Propaganda and the Teaching of History. Reginald Lenard (*Edinburgh Review*, January).

History as It Is Taught. Bertram C. A. Windle (*Homiletic and Pastoral Review*, March).

The Outlook for History. Logan Esarey (*Indiana Magazine of History*, December).

The Value of Pictures in the Teaching of History. Cecil L. Ross (*Journal of Educational Research*, February).

Cartoons as an Aid to the Teaching of History. Howard E. Wilson (*School Review*, March).

A Working Theory of Sovereignty, II. John Dickinson (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).

The Adequacy of Parliaments, I. H. A. L. Fisher (*Contemporary Review*, February).

Constructive Treason by Words in the Fifteenth Century. Samuel Rezneck (*American Historical Review*, April). Popular Education after the Council of Trent. T. Corcoran, S. J. (*Irish Monthly*, February). Time and American Archaeology. A. M. Tozzer (*Pan-American Union*, January). The Intendant System in Spanish-America. Lillian E. Fisher (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, February). Porto Bello in History. Jean Heald (*Pan-American Magazine*, February). Don José Antonio de Areche: His Own Defense. Eunice J. Gates (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, February). Was Patrick Egan a "Blundering Minister"? Osgood Hardy (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, February). Talleyrand. Dillon Cosgrave (*Irish Ecclesiastical Record*, February). The Contemporary Colonial Movement in Germany. Mary E. Townshend (*Political Science Quarterly*, March). Some Recollections of the Russian-Japanese Naval Engagement at Chemulpo in 1904. Leroy Brooks, Jr. (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, February). A Decade of Sino-Russian Diplomacy. Malbone W. Graham (*American Political Science Review*, February). Romance and Reality in Rumania. Herbert A. Gibbons (*Century*, March).

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

Geoffrey of Monmouth and Arthurian Origins. Roger S. Loomis (*Speculum*, January). An Eighth-Century List of Books in a Bodleian MS. from Würzburg, and Its Probable Relation to the Laudian Acts. Elias A. Lowe (*Speculum*, January). Admiralty Prize Case Briefs. Robert G. Albion (*American Historical Review*, April). Cromwell and America. Henry J. Cowell (*Baptist Quarterly*, January). Consular Service in the Reign of Charles II. Violet Barbour (*American Historical Review*, April). The Personnel of the English Cabinet, 1801-1924. Harold J. Laski (*American Political Science Review*, February). Disraeli, VI. André Maurois (*Forum*, March). *Imperium et Libertas*. Kingsley Martin (*Edinburgh Review*, January). Victoria and Gladstone. The Marriage of James III. Hugh Law (*Dublin Review*, January). Part I. The Scots Darien Colony in Panama. Jean Heald (*Pan-American Magazine*, January). The Irish Migration of the Forties. Frances Morehouse (*American Historical Review*, April). India's Progress under British Rule. J. E. Woolacott (*Current History*, March). Sixty Years of Canadian Federation. William A. Robinson (*Political Science Quarterly*, March). Early Knowledge and Discovery of Australia. Sir Hugh Denison (*Mid-Pacific Magazine*, March).

GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

The Origins of the War. J. A. R. Marriott (*Edinburgh Review*, January). Who Mobilized First? Sir Thomas Barclay (*North American Review*, March). Historiography and War Guilt. M. H. Cochran (*Political Science Quarterly*, March). Was Hungary Strangled by the Peace Treaty? "Yes," by Count Albert Apponyi; "No," by H. Wickham Steed (*Current History*, March). A Criticism of Lord Kitchener's War Record. H. A. de Weerd (*Current History*, March). Artillery Duel at Montfaucon. L. V. Jacks (*Scribner's*, March). The Bombing of London. Capt. Ernst A. Lehmann and Howard Mingos (*World Today*, February). Allenby of Megiddo. Capt. B. H. Liddell Hart (*Atlantic Monthly*, February).

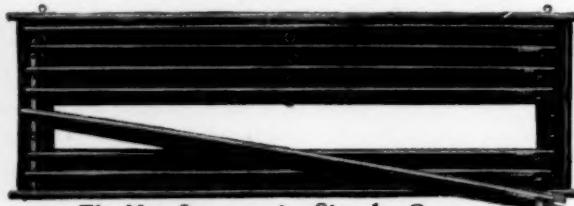
The Fall of the Russian Empire, II, III. Edmund A. Walsh (*Atlantic Monthly*, February, March).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

The Meeting of the American Historical Association at Washington. J. F. Jameson (*American Historical Review*, April). Congress and the National Administration. James A. Fairlie (*Michigan Law Review*, January). The Historic Basis of Diversity Jurisdiction. Henry J. Friendly (*Harvard Law Review*, February). The Separation of Powers in the Eighteenth Century. William S. Carpenter (*American Political Science Review*, February). Constitutional Law in 1926-1927. Robert E. Cushman (*American Political Science Review*, February). Travel Literature as Source Material for American Catholic History. Joseph P. Ryan, A. F. M. (*Illinois Catholic Historical Review*, January). The Political Attitudes of the Lutheran Parish in America: a Study in Religious Sectionalism. Heinrich H. Maurer (*American Journal of Sociology*, January). Indians of Iowa. (*Palimpsest*, February.) Eleven articles. Our Indian Ambassadors to Europe. Grant Foreman (*Missouri Historical Society Collections*, February). Early Settlements of Southern Colorado. Francis T. Cheetham (*Colorado Magazine*, February). Washington's Visits to Colonial Annapolis. Capt. H. A. Baldridge (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, February). The Co-operation of the Southern Colonies in the Forbes Expedition against Fort Duquesne. Paul H. Giddens (*Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, January). His Excellency Mr. Franklin: the Last Loves of the First American. Bernard Fay (*Forum*, March). Fathers of the Republic: Legend or History? David S. Muzzey (*Forum*, March). Fort Jackson and the Early Fur Trade on the South Platte. LeRoy R. Hafen (*Colorado Magazine*, February). John Stark Ravenscroft, First Bishop of North Carolina. E. Clowes Chorley (*American Church Monthly*, March). James Wilkinson's First Descent to New Orleans, 1787. Arthur P. Whitaker (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February). With documents. George Rogers Clark in Ohio. Laurence J. Kenny, S. J. (*Illinois Catholic Historical Review*, January). The Grain Trade of New Orleans, 1804-1814. W. F. Galpin (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March). The Beginnings of the Theatre in St. Louis. William G. B. Carson (*Missouri Historical Society Collections*). Some Factors in the Expansion of Frontier Methodism, 1800-1811. W. M. Gewehr (*Journal of Religion*, January). Introduction and Progress of Methodism in Southeastern Indiana (concluded). Allen Wiley (*Indiana Magazine of History*, December). Pacifist Propaganda and the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo. Merle E. Curti (*American Historical Review*, April). Louis Kossuth's Appeal to the Middle West, 1852. John W. Oliver (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March). Kentucky's Overland Trade with the Ante-Bellum South. Elizabeth L. Parr (*History Quarterly*, January). The Reverberations of the Slavery Conflict in a Pioneer College. Charles H. Rammelkamp (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March). The Influence of the Silver-Republican Senators, 1889-1891. Fred Wellborn (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, March). The Rise and Decline of the Hawaiian Monarchy. Herbert H. Gowen (*Mid-Pacific Magazine*, March). Relations between the United States and Nicaragua, 1898-1916. Anna I. Powell (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, February). Latin Fears and Yankee Favors. Mary W. Williams (*American Mercury*, March).

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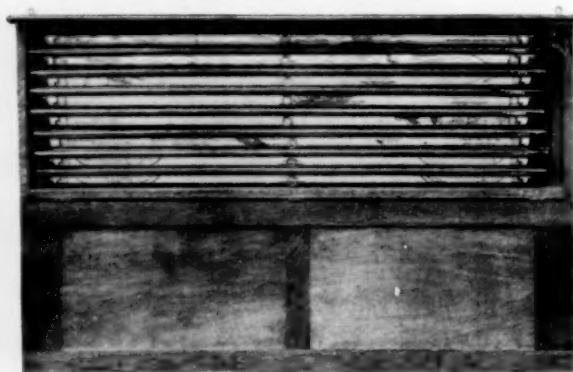
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